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The  
British  
Colonial  
Empire.

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# \*GENERAL STATISTICS OF THE COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES.

Colonies, &c.	Area.	Population, 1906.	Public Revenue, 1905.	Public Expenditure, 1905.	Public Debt, 31st Dec., 1905.	IMPORTS, 1905, FROM		EXPORTS, 1905, TO		Colonies, &c.
						United Kingdom.		United Kingdom.	Total.	
	sq. miles.		£	£	£	£	£	£	£	
<b>EUROPE—</b>										<b>EUROPE—</b>
Gibraltar .....	1½	24,984 <sup>a</sup>	87,523	64,142						Gibraltar.
Malta <sup>a</sup> .....	117	205,059	467,241	480,474	79,168 <sup>a</sup>	221,988	8,388,402	314,079	7,156,848	Malta.
Cyprus <sup>a</sup> .....	3,684	250,887	238,213	159,117 <sup>a</sup>	309,799	145,351 <sup>a</sup>	452,079	89,073 <sup>a</sup>	438,241	Cyprus.
Total for Europe .....	3,702½	480,930	709,977	703,733	388,967	307,339	8,870,571	2,403,151	7,505,080	Total for Europe.
<b>ASIA—</b>										<b>ASIA—</b>
Ceylon .....	26,481	3,960,123	2,263,023	2,139,166	4,881,093	1,078,694	7,682,483	3,698,548	6,832,671	Ceylon.
Hong Kong <sup>a</sup> .....	329	377,860	601,840	695,128	341,709					Hong Kong.
Wanhsai <sup>a</sup> .....	285	150,000	10,000	14,012						Wanhsai.
Straits Settlements .....	1,600½	611,790	1,165,742	1,098,039	70,000	3,401,181	33,223,382	5,721,487	28,296,069	Straits Settlements.
Malay States <sup>a</sup> .....	26,300	860,000	2,306,459	2,076,039			5,057,546		8,905,765	Malay States.
Labuan <sup>a</sup> .....	31	8,411 <sup>a</sup>	4,705	6,185			108,766		130,154	Labuan.
North Borneo <sup>a</sup> .....	31,106	160,000 <sup>a</sup>	99,353	83,586			283,167		453,748	North Borneo.
Sarawak <sup>a</sup> .....	41,000	500,000 <sup>a</sup>	135,347	124,052			588,111		754,110	Sarawak.
Total for Asia .....	126,132	6,618,174	6,797,061	6,205,817	5,292,692	5,079,875	46,943,953	9,320,035	44,472,407	Total for Asia.
<b>AFRICA—</b>										<b>AFRICA—</b>
Ascension .....	34									Ascension.
Cape, &c. <sup>a</sup> .....	276,995	2,470,289 <sup>a</sup>	13,856,248	10,914,785	42,109,561	12,156,737	19,760,790	31,810,258	33,769,216	Cape, &c.
Basutoland <sup>a</sup> .....	10,293	90,000 <sup>a</sup>	98,516	93,333			191,701		172,406	Basutoland.
Natal <sup>a</sup> .....	35,371	1,141,406 <sup>a</sup>	3,665,959	3,670,608	19,019,143	6,066,919	10,366,779	1,445,144	9,821,452	Natal.
Bechuanaland Protectorate .....	270,000	125,000	28,053	74,783						Bechuanaland Protectorate.
Transvaal <sup>a</sup> .....	111,196	4,070,231	4,953,495	35,000,000 <sup>a</sup>			8,284,069	16,846,893	23,274,276 <sup>a</sup>	Transvaal.
Orange River Colony <sup>a</sup> .....	50,392	387,315 <sup>a</sup>	759,306	759,178			2,748,365	4,053,504	5,045,711	Orange River Colony.
Maritzburg, &c. <sup>a</sup> .....	256,460	16,000,000 <sup>a</sup>	505,202	407,018	1,270,984	480,479	1,729,293	179,405	2,450,300	Maritzburg, &c.
Seychelles .....	150½	20,767	25,052	26,246	24,694	17,314	64,897	13,217	69,207	Seychelles.
St. Helena .....	47	3,781 <sup>a</sup>	10,287	14,969			40,283	52,787	70,351 <sup>a</sup>	St. Helena.
Sierra Leone and Protectorate .....	34,000	1,234,118 <sup>a</sup>	281,623	295,490	1,277,120	520,144	1,022,049	292,770	1,684,150	Sierra Leone & Protectorate.
Gambia .....	3,061½	182,500	51,868	72,397			17,300		380,272	Gambia.
Gold Coast Colony .....	119,200 <sup>a</sup>	1,690,965	586,221	616,118	2,448,158	1,044,655	1,486,068	1,177,366	1,646,145	Gold Coast Colony.
Southern Nigeria <sup>a</sup> .....	77,260	5,055,000 <sup>a</sup>	961,749	2,000,000	2,122,836	2,976,301	1,404,635	2,850,212	5,045,711	Southern Nigeria.
Northern Nigeria <sup>a</sup> .....	256,460	10,000,000 <sup>a</sup>	505,202	407,018						Northern Nigeria.
Br. Cent. Africa Protectorate <sup>a</sup> .....	40,980	977,660 <sup>a</sup>	6,738	108,682			165,496	253,181	35,103	Br. Cent. Africa Protectorate.
Sphere of operations of Br. S. Africa Co. <sup>a</sup> .....	750,000 <sup>a</sup>	632,000 <sup>a</sup>	576,675 <sup>a</sup>	680,655		169,782 <sup>a</sup>	961,698 <sup>a</sup>	1,137,621 <sup>a</sup>	1,273,521 <sup>a</sup>	Sphere of operations of Br. S. Africa Co.
East Africa Protectorate <sup>a</sup> .....	189,838 <sup>a</sup>	4,000,000 <sup>a</sup>	270,302 <sup>a</sup>	418,830		227,950	974,402 <sup>a</sup>	38,796	322,438	East Africa Protectorate.
Somaliland Protectorate <sup>a</sup> .....	68,000	300,000 <sup>a</sup>	39,477	127,480			272,283		231,666	Somaliland Protectorate.
Uganda Protectorate <sup>a</sup> .....	225,000	4,000,000 <sup>a</sup>	76,769	191,142		79,671	206,164		108,204	Uganda Protectorate.
Zanzibar .....	1,020 <sup>a</sup>	200,000 <sup>a</sup>	177,068	169,862		90,068	162,400	1,106,359	97,424	Zanzibar.
Total for Africa .....	2,618,594½	34,439,960	27,401,758	25,376,675	103,040,337	34,815,909	62,390,707	60,834,247	81,090,128	Total for Africa.
<b>AMERICA—</b>										<b>AMERICA—</b>
Bermuda .....	10	20,209 <sup>a</sup>	53,321	65,307	46,500	179,050	543,223	4,727	116,429	Bermuda.
Canada <sup>a</sup> .....	3,745,819	5,663,396 <sup>a</sup>	14,332,014	13,015,718	77,633,030	12,444,080	54,849,207	20,000,192	41,792,913	Canada.
Newfoundland & Labrador <sup>a</sup> .....	160,200	229,527	532,114	502,340	1,453,642	145,731	2,112,960	398,972	2,108,143	Newfoundland and Labrador.
British Guiana <sup>a</sup> .....	90,000	303,300 <sup>a</sup>	523,403	506,173	988,720	859,954	1,602,206	861,765	1,904,394	British Guiana.
British Honduras <sup>a</sup> .....	7,502	40,372	68,267	61,739	33,257	101,929	385,737	90,768	377,246	British Honduras.
Falkland Islands .....	7,500 <sup>a</sup>	2,000 <sup>a</sup>	16,229	14,825		62,218	86,165	167,030	167,030	Falkland Islands.
Total for America .....	4,011,100	6,278,903	15,820,438	14,166,097	83,233,949	14,182,971	69,011,633	22,487,360	46,641,674	Total for America.
<b>WEST INDIES—</b>										<b>WEST INDIES—</b>
Bahamas .....	4,466	58,175	77,293	70,256	102,626	76,978	308,544	13,198	222,905	Bahamas.
Barbados .....	166	109,242	190,291	180,252	416,000	445,435	1,042,562	180,454	858,544	Barbados.
Jamaica .....	4,207	817,000 <sup>a</sup>	1,001,546	947,862	3,669,359	869,832	1,941,988	356,902	1,848,180	Jamaica.
Trinidad <sup>a</sup> .....	169	6,287 <sup>a</sup>	6,243	7,379		5,490	28,230	225	24,022	Trinidad.
Trinidad and Tobago .....	1,968	331,613 <sup>a</sup>	847,952	869,951	1,056,532	957,694	3,303,611 <sup>a</sup>	828,411	3,169,706 <sup>a</sup>	Trinidad and Tobago.
Windward Isles .....	133	69,530 <sup>a</sup>	71,968	123,670	100,082	237,256	181,070	283,955	283,955	Windward Isles.
Grenada <sup>a</sup> .....	233	53,359	61,877	62,821	161,180	96,087	288,987	57,647	211,854	Grenada.
St. Lucia <sup>a</sup> .....	133	56,170	26,900	25,911	4,650	25,471	69,097	24,405	53,078	St. Lucia.
Leeward Islands—										Leeward Islands—
Antigua .....										Antigua.
Dominica .....										Dominica.
Montserrat .....										Montserrat.
St. Kitts and Nevis .....										St. Kitts and Nevis.
Virgin Islands .....										Virgin Islands.
Total for West Indies .....	12,079	1,714,506	2,421,113	2,378,931	5,869,017	2,833,008	7,638,031	1,706,082	7,107,071	Total for West Indies.
<b>AUSTRALASIA—</b>										<b>AUSTRALASIA—</b>
New South Wales <sup>a</sup> .....	310,700	1,514,240	12,283,082	11,386,864	56,641,734	8,602,288	29,424,008	10,222,462	36,767,002	New South Wales.
Victoria <sup>a</sup> .....	87,884	1,230,280	7,793,081	7,093,463	52,287,237 <sup>a</sup>	7,473,480	12,747,964 <sup>a</sup>	7,727,462	14,028,674 <sup>a</sup>	Victoria.
Queensland <sup>a</sup> .....	688,407	829,400	3,737,001	3,627,590	30,068,627	2,102,450	6,069,345	1,871,433	11,399,504	Queensland.
West Australia <sup>a</sup> .....	975,020	260,770	3,668,099	3,633,318	18,060,648	2,278,933	6,481,874	4,210,201	9,671,019	West Australia.
South Australia <sup>a</sup> .....	903,600	374,108	2,840,908	2,840,508	30,038,485	2,033,359	8,439,009	2,555,118	4,000,607	South Australia.
Tasmania <sup>a</sup> .....	30,615	180,057	883,105	9,098,816		686,002	1,003,172	975,004	3,711,016	Tasmania.
New Zealand <sup>a</sup> .....	104,751	948,649	7,650,098	7,122,346	62,191,040	7,795,284	12,828,867	19,057,518	15,485,493	New Zealand.
Fiji .....	7,435	121,872	132,043	152,815			442,862	24,616	706,402	Fiji.
Papua <sup>a</sup> .....	90,640	350,000 <sup>a</sup>	20,230	38,350			70,671		80,290	Papua.
Total for Australasia .....	3,176,632	5,609,131	30,061,566	36,735,510	297,139,692	30,871,795	79,995,332	38,819,774	102,241,211	Total for Australasia.
Total for Colonies .....	9,847,154½	55,041,010	62,237,013	85,666,763	404,964,704	88,161,497	205,450,177	135,630,749	289,207,670	Total for Colonies.

<sup>a</sup> In comparing imports with exports it should be borne in mind that the value of goods imported is that at the place from which they were exported, while that of goods exported is the value in the colony. The real cost of imports is therefore arrived at by adding the cost of importation, which of course varies greatly according to circumstances. Thus in the case of Rhodesia it is estimated that the cost of importation averages 73 per cent. of the declared value of the goods, and if this is added it will be seen that the balance of trade, which otherwise appears to be in favour of Rhodesia, is against it.

<sup>1</sup> The financial returns given for these Colonies are for the year ended 30th June, 1906. <sup>2</sup> Estimate. <sup>3</sup> The financial returns given for these Colonies are for the year ended 31st March, 1906. <sup>4</sup> Including military. <sup>5</sup> Census, 1901. <sup>6</sup> Imports and Exports are not given in the case of Hong Kong, as there are no returns distinguishing the local from the foreign trade. The figures for Malta include the latter trade in dutiable goods. <sup>7</sup> Civil population only. <sup>8</sup> The dollar has been converted into £ sterling at the rate of 2s. 0d. <sup>9</sup> Census, 1904. <sup>10</sup> Including specie. <sup>11</sup> Approximate. <sup>12</sup> Exclusive of Parliamentary Grant. <sup>13</sup> Including Pemba, 380 square miles. <sup>14</sup> Southern Rhodesia only. <sup>15</sup> Southern Nigeria and Lagos were amalgamated on 1st May, 1906. <sup>16</sup> Including protected territories adjacent to the Colony. <sup>17</sup> Practically the whole export of the Colony is to the United Kingdom. <sup>18</sup> Between the Transvaal and Orange River Colony. <sup>19</sup> The returns of Imports and Exports are for the year ended 31st December, 1904. <sup>20</sup> Excluding Inter-State trade. <sup>21</sup> The financial returns given for these Colonies are for the year ended 30th June, 1905. <sup>22</sup> Including 788 Europeans. <sup>23</sup> Including Northern South Georgia. <sup>24</sup> Excluding Tribute £292,800. <sup>25</sup> At 30th June, 1906.





# A HANDBOOK

OF THE

# BRITISH COLONIAL EMPIRE

BASED UPON THE

“Colonial Office List,”

BY

W. H. MERCER, C.M.G.

(Wadham College, Oxford),

ONE OF THE CROWN AGENTS FOR THE COLONIES;

AND

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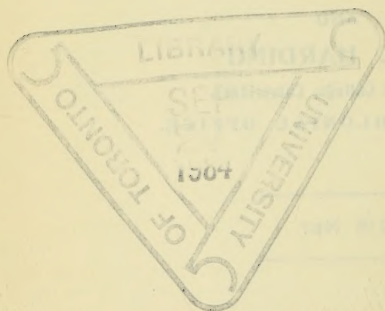
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## PREFACE.

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THE accounts of the British colonies and dependencies in this handbook are founded on those in the "Colonial Office List," but are grouped together in geographical divisions. The editors have endeavoured to give in the prefatory chapters a sketch of subjects which can be treated from a general point of view, and trust that it will help the reader to take an interest in current questions of administration. They have reduced to reasonable dimensions the topographical and statistical details, which, while serving to give the student definite impressions, are a heavy load on the memory, and they venture to express a hope that, in making use of this handbook for educational purposes, the aim of teachers and examiners will be to encourage broad views of the history, character and condition of a place, and reflection on matters of general interest, rather than the mechanical reproduction of particulars.

The Editors will gratefully welcome any corrections or suggestions.





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# HANDBOOK

OF THE

## BRITISH COLONIAL EMPIRE.

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### PART I.—GENERAL.

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#### CHAPTER I.—INTRODUCTORY.

*Classes of Possessions.*—The British Colonial Empire comprises forty-two distinct territories which have been annexed to the Crown, and which possess regularly formed administrations. These are the colonies in the full sense of the term. In addition there are a number of places which have not been annexed, and which, therefore, still remain, technically, foreign; but they are virtually governed by Great Britain, which has assumed the responsibility for them as against any other foreign countries. These are usually called dependencies. Most of them are protectorates, *i.e.*, territories which have been placed, usually by treaty with the natives, under the protection of the King; in two cases—Cyprus and Wei-hai-wei—they are foreign territories leased to Great Britain. The term dependency was formerly used in a wider sense to include places which had a foreign population, such as Malta and Gibraltar; but the distinction observed now is not one of population, but one of the constitutional character of the possession. India, on account of its great size and native population, and the fact that part of it is British territory and part technically foreign, constitutes a class apart, but is usually spoken of as a dependency.

*Modes of Acquisition.*—All these places have been acquired by one of three methods—settlement, cession or conquest. Settlement means establishing a title to a place by occupying it, as in the case of Australia. In such instances the colonists take with them to the new country as much of the law of the old country as can be reasonably applied; in other words, the field being clear, the law of England steps in and remains till it is ousted or modified by local legislation. In the other two cases the laws existing at the time remain in force, notwithstanding the change of ownership, and they have in practice held their ground in a marked manner; thus the old civil French law prevails in lower Canada and Mauritius, and Dutch law in the Cape, Natal, Ceylon and British Guiana.

*The Two Objects of Colonisation.*—Colonies may be divided into two broad types. (1) The places which are occupied for the purpose of taking the products of the country with the aid of coloured labour; (2) those which are meant to be settlements of men of white race. The first used to be known as “plantations,” but the work done is not always that of planting, as many tropical products are yielded by the bounty of Nature, and the French term “colonies d’exploitation,” contrasted with “colonies de peuplement,” is more apt. The first are the settlements made by the capitalist in tropical or sub-tropical countries where white labour is practically impossible or uneconomical, and where the chief object is the exploitation of the country for valuable products, whether these be vegetable or animal. The owners of these enterprises can hardly be said to inaugurate a new national life; they remain attached to the mother country. The coloured races in these places, whether native or imported, usually flourish and increase. The second are the true colonies in the old Greek sense. In them the population to which value is attached is white, and the natives are to a great extent, in face of the struggle for predominance, expelled or exterminated. In some countries there is a struggle between the two systems. In the American Civil War the struggle was between the planters in the South, who regarded the holding of black slaves as a necessity, and the white colonists of the North, who were themselves the workmen. Similarly in Queensland there have been contests between the planters, who contend that the sugar plantations in the North can only be carried on with coloured labour, and the labour party, who keep before them the ideal of Australia as a white man’s country. A similar question is at the bottom of the controversy about the introduction of Chinese to work in the mines in the Transvaal. In such large sub-tropical countries the distinction between the two ideas is not so strongly marked as in other cases, as there is room and oppor-

tunity for a large commercial and artisan class, even where coloured labour is necessary on the land ; but it is always a fundamental one, and the social and political character of a colony turns mostly on the question : Does the European go there merely to make money or to make it his home ?

*Extent of the Empire.*—Including India, the empire has an area of nearly 11,400,000 square miles, or 91 times the area of the mother country, and about one-fifth of the world's surface, and a population of about 410,000,000, or about one-fifth of the world's total. The area of the Colonial Empire alone is more than 80 times that of the United Kingdom, but it has a population, if we exclude the vast territories in Africa—whose population is only vaguely estimated—of only some 27 millions as compared with the 40 millions at home.

Of the total colonial area of 10 million square miles, the self-governing colonies cover about seven million square miles, inhabited by a population of 15 millions, so that the area more or less under the direct authority of the Home Government amounts to three million square miles, with a population of about 12 millions, excluding unascertained population as above. All but about 360,000 square miles of this is in Africa.

With a population so small in proportion to the vast area, and the facilities that now exist for the interchange of produce, there are naturally but few towns of considerable size in the colonies, and though in Canada and Australia and the Cape there are some considerable manufactures, the products consist mainly of raw materials. Only about forty towns have a population of more than thirty thousand (omitting the native towns of West Africa). The aggregation of the population of Australia in the four large towns—Melbourne, Sydney, Adelaide and Brisbane—is very remarkable, more than one-third of the population of the Australian continent being crowded into them. This appears to be mainly due to the development of the external trade of Australia, which is concentrated in these towns.

*Communications.*—The scattered members of the British Empire lack the territorial consolidation of continental unions, such as the United States and Russia, but on the other hand they are connected by the great maritime highways, and from their wide geographical range embrace all varieties of industry and commerce. Their solidarity is increased by every improvement in the means of transport and communication, and the practical questions which arise in the work of administration are largely concerned with these matters. The consolidation of the Canadian Provinces into the Dominion was largely due



to the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Canada suffers a permanent disadvantage in the St. Lawrence River being closed to ocean liners by ice during the winter, so that much freight is diverted to United States ports; but the development of railways in the interior is making great strides, and a new trans-continental line is contemplated. In South Africa the rails from the southern coast have reached and crossed the Victoria Falls of the Zambesi in Rhodesia, and Mr. Rhodes' great conception of a line from "Cape to Cairo" is well on the road to accomplishment. In Australia the Colonial Governments have spent large sums in the construction of State railways, which, generally speaking, run directly from the coast into the interior, and the same policy is being actively pursued by the governments on the East and West Coasts of Africa, in the Straits Settlements, and Ceylon. Steamship communication is entirely left to private enterprise, and, on the whole, except where high freights are kept up by "rings," which secure a kind of monopoly of the carrying trade, the results are satisfactory.

No other country possesses anything like the great system of submarine cables by which the British Empire is connected. (*See map*). Only five places—British Honduras, Tobago, Virgin Islands, Falkland Islands, and British New Guinea, lie outside the system. Most of the work has been done by the Eastern Telegraph Companies, and recently the mother country, Canada, and Australasia united as partners to construct the Pacific cable, which affords, in connection with the lines crossing the Atlantic Ocean, an alternative route to Australia *via* Canada, running entirely through British territory.

The establishment of postage at 1d. per half-ounce practically throughout the empire—Australia having partially adhered in 1905—is one of the latest acts of union, the ordinary rate to foreign countries being 2½d.

*Character of Union.*—The scattered character of the empire, however, stands in the way of that complete phase of consolidation which is given by a central Parliament representative of all parts. The responsible Ministers of distant colonies cannot, of course, sit or attend frequently in London. The result of this position is that, there being no fully representative chamber, the self-governing colonies in their relations with the mother country are almost entirely treated as so many separate Powers, with which negotiations may be conducted and agreements concluded. The bond of union is in fact not so much one of form as of common interests and sympathies. While this want of a central authority makes for some weakness and slowness as regards combination in policy and action, on the other hand the voluntary nature of the association gives a

tranquillity and satisfaction which is often lacking in great empires which are more solidly built together. If the constitutional chains which connect the British Empire are slight, the strain upon them is small.

*Elements of Union.*—The solid elements of union may be briefly set out as follows:—

(1) The general predominance in administration of the Anglo-Saxon race, one possessing strongly marked characteristics, in which the love of individual freedom is perhaps the chief, but also tolerant of other types of character. This predominance is aided by a steady flow of emigration from the United Kingdom. It may be conceded that, as the increase of our population slackens, the importance of outlets for “surplus” population decreases. On the other hand, there is an immense increase in coming and going, and the parts of the empire are in closer and closer touch with one another.

(2) Close commercial and financial connection. Thus the colonies have a public debt (not including municipal borrowing) of £473,580,903 (1904), most of which is held in this country, and the interest on which is paid largely in the form of exports to us. Nearly one-half of the total external trade of all the possessions falls to Great Britain. A comparison of the comparatively limited range of the usual Continental investments shows how large a field is opened by the colonies to the British investor. On the other hand, the colonies benefit from the confidence felt.

(3) The common language and literature; participation in the same past history; and a large measure of agreement in thought, sentiment, custom and law.

(4) Loyalty to the Crown. This is a personal influence of enormous force in uniting all races. Moreover, the Crown is the symbol of the constitutional union of the United Kingdom and of the several colonies. The self-governing colonies regard their own Parliaments as possessing a status similar to that of the United Kingdom, and there is a tendency to consider that the constitutional supremacy of the Parliament at Westminster should not be actively used. There is a feeling of separate nationalism in these places which claims the entire right of legislation. But the headship of the Crown is common to all, and constitutes the only tie which puts all on the same level.

(5) The common interest in defence, which depends essentially in this case on sea-power.

The maritime trade of the whole empire is about £1,500,000,000 a year, of which about one-third belongs to the colonies. Almost the whole burden of maintaining the Navy,

which protects their trade, falls on Great Britain, so that the colonies receive a great advantage.

The aggregate annual revenues of the colonies are greater than that of Great Britain, and it is contended by some authorities that the time has come for the colonies to contribute substantially to the cost of the Navy. The large colonies have a considerable number of Militia troops (*e.g.*, some 34,000 in Canada, 37,000 in Australasia), which have shown excellent fighting qualities. Canada voluntarily sent over 6,000 men, Australia 15,000, and New Zealand 6,000, to the South African War. The maxim that union is strength is growing more and more important in these days of colossal organisations.

(6) The pride felt in membership of a vast empire.

*Conferences.*—Although no machinery exists for fully representative meetings, it is possible to arrange from time to time for a conference between leading representatives of the United Kingdom and the self-governing colonies, and three such meetings have taken place (1887, 1897 and 1902). On the last of these occasions a resolution was passed in favour of holding conferences, "as far as possible, at intervals not exceeding four years, at which questions of common interest affecting the relation of the mother country and her dominions over the seas could be discussed and considered as between the Secretary of State for the Colonies and the Prime Ministers of the self-governing colonies."

In 1905, the Secretary of State proposed in a circular despatch that these meetings shall be known as the sittings of the "Imperial Council," and that, in addition, a permanent Commission should be formed, with an office in London, to inquire into and advise on matters of joint concern.

Considerable support has been given to this idea, which reflects the natural desire to create a body which shall represent all the most important parts of the empire, and thus to give formal expression to the feeling of union which exists and is growing stronger. The proposed Council and Commission could collect much useful information, and on some occasions could hold meetings attended by leading colonial statesmen. But it is fairly certain that the discussions could only be deliberative and advisory. The self-governing colonies could not delegate to a somewhat haphazard body any power to decide questions or to take action. Furthermore, the difficulty of collecting together representative colonial leaders is in practice very great and has led, on several occasions, to disappointments and postponements. The question of reciprocal preferential trade is probably the principal material consideration in the minds of the supporters of the idea; the other questions which have been suggested are mostly matters of

shipping (shipping laws, mails and freight charges), and these are generally matters which require prolonged negotiations and correspondence. Defence, the greatest common interest, is not within the provision of the scheme, being the province of the Imperial Defence Committee, which can be attended by colonial representatives.

Mention may be made in this connection of the important work which is constantly being done for the common benefit of the Empire by learned and professional bodies which lie apart from the political machinery. Much of the development of tropical products is due to the work done at, and advice given by, the Royal Gardens at Kew. The laboratory of the Imperial Institute is busy with research and analysis. The Royal Colonial Institute, the Society of Arts, the Royal Geographical Society, the Schools of Tropical Medicine, and other institutions are constantly collating and discussing practical information. The wide publication of these proceedings in the mother-tongue is a real bond of union.

*Increased Estimation of Colonies.*—There has no doubt been during, roughly speaking, the last half century, a considerable change in the opinion of England as to the value of her dependencies, and the consideration of the reasons for the unfavourable theories which used to be largely held, and of the causes which have led to a wider view and a warmer sympathy, opens up an interesting chapter of political thought. John Stuart Mill, a great authority among the thinkers of the time, wrote an article in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," in which he argued that colonies were not merely useless, but detrimental to the mother country, and that the chief cause of them was the selfish interest of a few who profited by places in them, or by the wars which they occasioned. Cobden expressed a hope that the bonds would gradually be loosened. India in particular he denounced as a calamity and a curse to England. Sir Cornwall Lewis, in his treatise on the "Government of Dependencies," published in 1841, gave greater weight to the disadvantages than to the advantages. Mr. Disraeli, when leader of the Tory party, declared in a private letter that the colonies were millstones round our necks, and Lord John Russell, the leader of the Whigs, publicly stated that separation would soon follow the grant of responsible government. Even within the walls of the Colonial Office similar views were held. Sir Henry Taylor's autobiography shows that both he and Sir F. Rogers, the Permanent Under-Secretary, considered that the North American Colonies were a *damnosa hereditas*, and that the proper home policy was to provide facilities for separation.



One very potent cause of these views was the exaggerated idealism which led large numbers, under distinguished leaders of thought, to believe in the advent of universal Free Trade and of a Reign of Peace. This was, to some extent, the dream of the "Manchester School," and under its influence it seemed to matter little under what flag any place lived, while the tension and friction of the supposed bonds and chains between the mother country and the colonies were looked upon as a constant peril. The change of view began to assert itself vigorously when it came to be realised that the "Calico Millennium," as Carlyle sarcastically called it, was not within view.

The barriers of protection abroad are stronger than ever, and several millions of soldiers are on the peace establishments of Europe. Instead, in short, of a world-wide harmony, there is increasing contest and competition, and the value to us of the places which are closely associated with us is enhanced accordingly.

On the other hand, many persons who indulged in no Utopias saw in the colonial possessions sources of conflict with foreign powers. Now for this view there was ample historical ground. England's colonial claims have been the direct cause of some of the heaviest of her struggles with foreign countries. But the risk of such outbreaks has been enormously lessened in recent years. Long continued possession is in itself a great element of safety, and the great Powers have for a long time been busily settling boundary questions in a peaceable manner. This process will probably continue, but already the desirable parts of the world have been almost completely divided up, and there is less and less chance as time goes on of any serious conflict arising from colonial expansion.

Another point which caused some irritation was the preference given to certain colonial products, such as timber, coffee and wine. Many people resented being practically compelled to buy from the colonies. The abolition of preference swept this feeling away.

Moreover, the general policy of the other countries which have been busy in the work of annexations is one of strong protection, and the high tariff walls which have been built in many places compel trade to find other avenues. These avenues have to a great extent been found in the colonies.

Apart from, but in line with these considerations, there has undoubtedly been a great growth in the just pride which all citizens of so great an empire can feel. The colonies as a whole have grown enormously in importance, and their social and political life commands greater respect. Developments of steamships and railways, telegraphs, and the press, have quickened the common life and strengthened mutual respect

Much of the strength of this feeling is due to the fact that England, after once establishing security of life and property and freedom of speech and conscience, has meddled little. The earliest settlements were of a proprietary character, and everywhere later developments have been strongly marked by personal influences—a line of men of robust type, of energy and resource and high moral qualities. The chapters of their achievements cannot be read without a feeling of the dignity which belongs to membership of the common enterprise, and it is no small thing, even if the mother country does not benefit therefrom, to have spread the “*pax Britannica*,” and the agencies of knowledge and progress among more than 400 millions of mankind.



## CHAPTER II.—CONSTITUTIONS.

*Earliest Settlements.*—The earliest oversea settlements were made under grants from the Crown. In the 16th century the Crown claimed, by right of discovery and possession, whatever lay to the north of the parallel of 32° on the American continent. The first successful settlements—Virginia and New England—were formed under patents granted by James I. The first West Indian settlement originated in a grant of the Bermudas to the Virginia Company in 1611. The terms of this grant are interesting. The Letters Patent stated that the islands were to be held of the manor of East Greenwich, in the County of Kent. This means that the lands were to be held from the King as lord of the manor of East Greenwich—in other words the theory of the feudal system, that all land is held by grant from the King, was applied to the new possessions.

Later on, in 1676, the Hudson Bay Territories were granted in similar terms. The feudal theory, however, was only applied by the Stuarts, and it has since been judicially decided that the feudal tenure does not apply to lands out of England. In recent times the Crown has simply annexed territory as a political act, leaving it to the settlers to acquire their titles to land by occupation or purchase.

*King as Legislator.*—The power of making laws for the colonies rested, in the first instance, with the King. He was assisted by a council of his own selection, and the laws made were usually in the form of Orders-in-Council. This practice is commemorated by the frequent use in colonies which do not possess representative assemblies of the term "Ordinance" for an Act of a colonial legislature, an ordinance being properly an Act of the King-in-Council, a "Statute" being an Act of the King, Lords and Commons.

This power of the Crown to legislate by prerogative for the colonies still exists, but, as will be seen, it has to a large extent been delegated to colonial legislatures. In most of the Crown colonies the power has been preserved, and in these cases, Orders-in-Council can be issued to supplement or to override the Acts of the local legislatures, but the King cannot make laws which are contrary to fundamental principles, or which exempt from the laws of trade or the authority of Parliament, or which give privileges to the exclusion of his other subjects.

The King now exercises his powers as he is advised by his Ministers. The old councils and boards which he appointed to help him have given place to the Cabinet which represents Parliamentary Government. The old forms are preserved and are administratively convenient; but the Government directs them and is responsible for them. The constitutions of Crown colonies are altered by Letters Patent; the functions of governors are settled by Royal instructions; the policy of the Government is carried out, when necessary and possible, by Orders-in-Council. Thus the Home Government, which, in the United Kingdom, has no legislative power (except when specially authorised by Parliament), and is controlled in its administrative acts by the necessity of obtaining all the money required from Parliament, wields considerable legislative and executive powers in all oversea territories which have not been granted self-government.

*Modern Crown Grants.*—Even in recent times important cases have occurred of the issue of Royal Charters: thus they have been granted to the British South Africa Company, the Royal Niger Company, and the British North Borneo Company. But these are special cases of territories which it was difficult to develop by the usual method of occupation, and which were not actually annexed. Another remnant of the old procedure is the granting of warrants by the Secretary of State for the occupation and enjoyment of uninhabited islands in certain areas; many islands, mostly in the South Pacific, are so held at present on lease.

*Earliest Constitutions.*—The earliest colonies—North American and West Indian—were granted by the Crown constitutions which appear remarkably liberal when some later cases of Crown colonies are compared. These constitutions embodied the principle of control by a legislature composed partly of elected members. The case of a governor who is the sole legislative authority, or who legislates in conjunction with a council, all the members of which are nominated by the Crown, is historically later. The explanation is that the first colonies were established by settlements from home; ceded and conquered territories have been dealt with more guardedly. It is interesting to note that the model of our first colonial constitution is preserved to this day, not only in our Crown colonies, but in the United States, both federally and individually. The distinctive feature of the Presidential system of the United States, as compared with our Cabinet system, is that the executive is outside the legislative house, and is directly under the President or Governor; whereas with us the executive is picked from Parliament and is controlled by it. The United States



system represents the colonial system of a governor with an executive council and a legislative chamber.

The first representative assembly ever held in America was that convened in Virginia in 1619, two burgesses being elected by each of eleven towns; this body levied the taxes and appeals lay to it. The first representative assembly in Bermuda was held in the following year. The seeds of self-government were thus sown in America, and King James I. may have shown some prophetic feeling of the later development when he declared that "The Virginia Company was a seminary for a seditious Parliament."

These assemblies had full power to make laws, subject to a general condition that the laws were, as near as conveniently might be, agreeable to those of England. The evils from which they suffered were not constitutional but economic—the monopoly of export and import trade conferred on the company, the enforcement of the Navigation Act which prevented shipments to any place but England, and the fiscal exactions of the Crown. In the last matter at least the Parliament of England under the Stuarts was in scarcely better position.

*Existing Types.*—At the present day colonial legislatures exist in every phase of development, from those where the governor possesses the whole power of local government to those which have elected assemblies and full rights of legislation and administration in all local matters. The main distinction is between Crown colonies, which are controlled by the Home Government, and self-governing colonies. Crown colonies are sub-divided according to the degree of power given to the local representatives as against the official members of the legislative council. The following statement shows in full the present position:—

*Classification of Constitutions.*—Of the forty-seven Administrations, twelve, viz., Canada, Newfoundland, Cape Colony, Natal, the Australian Commonwealth, the six Australian States, and New Zealand—have elected assemblies and responsible governments; the constitutional position of the other thirty-five is as follows:

1. No legislative council. Legislative power delegated to the officer administering the government (10).

(a) Crown has retained power of legislating by Order-in-Council—Gibraltar, Labuan, St. Helena, Bechuanaland Protectorate, Northern Nigeria, British Central Africa, British East Africa, Uganda, Somaliland.

(b) No general power reserved of legislating by Order-in-Council—Basutoland.

2. Legislative council nominated by the Crown (16).

(a) Crown has reserved power of legislating by Order-in-Council — Ceylon, Falklands, Gambia, Gold Coast, Grenada, Hong Kong, Southern Nigeria, Orange River Colony, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Straits Settlements, Transvaal, Trinidad and Tobago.

(b) No general power reserved of legislating by Order-in-Council—British Honduras.

3. Legislative council partly elected, with, in some cases, an elective assembly (9).

(a) Crown has reserved power of legislating by Order-in-Council—British Guiana, Fiji, Malta, Mauritius.

(b) No general power reserved of legislating by Order-in-Council—Bahamas, Barbados, Bermuda, Jamaica, Leeward Islands.

Cyprus and Wei-hai-wei are not included in the above (being technically foreign territories held on lease). The first has a Council of Class 3 (a). The second belongs to the type of Class 1 (a).

There are also the legislatures of the Canadian Provinces, which in conjunction with the Dominion Parliament possess responsible government, and the legislatures of some of the Leeward Islands, which have nominated councils which deal with local matters, questions of general concern being dealt with by the Federal Council.

*Nature of Legislative Powers.*—In all these cases the colonial legislatures have been granted what are practically full powers of legislation subject to two conditions: (1) They cannot pass an Act which is "repugnant to," i.e., contrary to an Imperial Act; (2) they must confine their Acts strictly to their own territorial limits. The assent of the Crown may, however, be withheld, and the Home Government, notwithstanding the powers which have been delegated, may by obtaining an Act of the Imperial Parliament, or, in some cases, an Order-in-Council, legislate for the local affairs of a colony and override local legislation.

If a colonial legislature attempts to legislate contrary to an Imperial Act, or on any matter which lies outside the limits of their jurisdiction as defined in the Letters Patent or Charter, the Act is *ultra vires*, or beyond their power, and the courts of law would refuse to give effect to it, even if it had received the royal assent.

*Royal Prerogative.*—The King's prerogative is as valid in any colony as it is in the county of Middlesex; for the whole

empire he makes peace and war, concludes treaties with other Sovereigns, grants dignities, receives appeals (through the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council), and exercises the prerogative of mercy. These powers are not delegated to a colonial government. He legislates for the colonies by Orders-in-Council. But if legislative powers have once been granted to a colony, the legislative power of the Crown by virtue of prerogative is no longer exerciseable, unless it is expressly reserved.

*Governors.*—A colonial governor represents the King, but he is not a viceroy, *i.e.*, he only represents the King, so far as he is specifically authorised. He is an officer appointed, usually for six years, to execute the duties and powers which the commission granted to him by the King confers. He convokes, prorogues, and dissolves the legislative houses; appoints officers; exercises the prerogative of mercy to criminals; and his assent is required to bills. He is liable to be sued in the colony for illegal acts. A criminal charge against him may, under an Imperial Statute (11 and 12, W. 3, c. 13), be tried in England.

He is usually assisted by an executive council, consisting in the self-governing colonies of the leading Ministers, and in some cases can only act with their advice. He is not, generally speaking, absolutely precluded from acting contrary to such advice, but if he does so he takes the responsibility, and in a self-governing colony this would usually entail the resignation of the Government.

*Simplest type.*—The simplest or most embryonic type of possession, is that which belongs to Class I., of the above table. Here the "legislative power is delegated to the officer administering the government." There is no executive or legislative body; the governor performs the functions of both. This is the position, *e.g.*, at Gibraltar.

*Protectorates.*—It is also that in the Protectorates, or territories, which have not, in the technical sense, been annexed to the British dominions, but which are under our care. Here there is a commissioner who enacts laws, usually under the name of "Proclamations." The origin of British administration in such cases is usually a treaty with the native chiefs, who grant, in consideration of the protection given to them, the right of making any laws necessary for the government of the country. This grant carries the right to provide for the administration of justice and other proper functions of administration, and the levying of taxes for these purposes. The "proclamations" made for these purposes are issued under



the authority of an Order-in-Council, which is itself issued under powers specified in the Foreign Jurisdiction Acts. The title to do these things is valid against any foreign Power, but the territory is not British nor are the inhabitants British subjects. Usually such territories are at the back of established Colonies, and it is an old doctrine that occupation of the coast carries with it, as against other foreign Powers, the interior as far as the crest of the watershed from which the rivers falling into that part of the coast rise. This test is not always applicable or adequate, but international usage, especially of late, freely recognises the "hinterlands" as the legitimate "sphere of influence" of the civilised Power which possesses the colony to which they are adjacent. The exact extent of the jurisdiction exercised by the protecting Power is not always easy to determine, but the tendency is to take a liberal view, and to accept the full responsibilities of government, and to make provision for them. When this is done the King practically exercises full sovereign rights. This position was illustrated in a notable way by the judgment in the criminal case against Dr. Jameson, who had invaded the Transvaal, a foreign State, from Pitsani Potlugo, a place in the British Protectorate of Bechuanaland. This, under an Imperial Statute, was a criminal offence if the Protectorate were to be considered for this purpose to be British territory, and it was held that it was, as the district had been treated as part of the British dominions for effective purposes.

That decision, however, does not affect the fact that the soil of a Protectorate is foreign. How then comes it that the Crown frequently grants "concessions" of land in such places to companies? The explanation is that, although the Crown cannot say "this land is mine and I give it to you," it can say "this land is considered to be, for certain purposes, vacant, and you may occupy it under certain conditions." The granting of such a permission is an administrative act, and not a transfer of title. If the land is partly occupied by natives, this does not prevent the grant of a Government concession, but care is taken to safeguard the natives' customary rights.

A remarkable instance of the development of the Protectorate system is to be found in the Malay Peninsula, where several States with which we concluded treaties and where we established "Residents" to advise and guide the native rulers, have federated themselves into one group, and exhibited great and rapid development.

*Crown Colonies.*—Next in order of development comes the Crown colony which possesses a legislative council, the members of which are appointed by the Crown, *i.e.*, by the governor. A majority of these members are officials. The

Straits Settlements are an example of this type. An advance on this is the form in which, as in Jamaica and Mauritius, some members are elected, but the nominated members are still in a majority.

*Representative Government.*—The government is called representative when the colony possesses a legislative chamber in which at least one-half of the members are elected (definition in the Act 28 and 29 Vict. c. 63) although the Secretary of State for the Colonies and the governor retain the power of appointing the chief officials. The result of this is that the executive is always composed of government officials, and any other members who may be nominated by the Crown. The whole initiative is then vested in the official element, but the chamber alone can provide supplies of money, and in this way exercises a control. The system obviously admits of numerous variations within the above limits.

Thus it will be seen from the table above that not only where there is no legislative council, but also where the legislative council is nominated by the Crown, the Crown (except in two cases) retains the right to legislate by Order-in-Council; this means in practice that the Colonial Office can enact laws to take effect in the colony. But in these cases—as the Crown also nominates the members of the local legislative body—it is not under any necessity to resort to Order-in-Council, and does not do so except in special cases, as when legislation is urgently needed, and the local legislature is not sitting, or in matters which affect the Royal prerogative, such as coinage, or in cases of general questions, where more than one colony is dealt with at a time, and this is merely a matter of the greater convenience of using one instrument for several places. The position is different in the case of those colonies (the 3rd class) which have a partly elected chamber. It is obviously a more serious matter to legislate at home when there is a local body containing an elective element, and this would especially be so when the number of elected members exceeds that of nominated members. The latter case, in fact, can only occur when there is a serious and insurmountable deadlock between the chamber and the executive government. In one case (Malta) such a deadlock recently led not only to the issue of an Order-in-Council, but to a change of constitution, the elective element being deprived of its predominancy. The power is, however, usually only exercised in order that the Home Government, which in a greater or less degree controls the finances of the Crown colonies, may protect itself by levying taxes to meet the expenditure considered necessary.

The fully developed type of representative colony is not liable to legislation by Order-in-Council. It possesses an

executive council containing both official and unofficial members, the former being in the majority; a nominated legislative council also composed of both classes, the unofficial being in this case in the majority, and a house of assembly, which is entirely elective, and which, like the House of Commons, controls supplies of money. This is the constitution of Bahamas, Barbados, and Bermuda.

The diversity of practice in these matters is rather remarkable. It is due partly to the national habit of settling each case on its own merits, and partly to historic causes. Thus the peculiar constitution of British Guiana is traceable to the treaty under which the territory was ceded by the Dutch. Barbados, Bermuda and the Bahamas possessed representative institutions before the secession of the North American colonies; the other colonies, as has been observed, which were acquired by conquest after that event were treated with more reserve, and the difference is a marked one to this day.

*Responsible Government.*—The first grant of responsible government was in 1841 to Canada; in 1855 New South Wales obtained it, and other cases followed quickly, the last being that of Natal in 1893.\* In all these cases it is an essential condition that a race of European descent should be able to settle and work permanently. This condition is only fulfilled in fairly healthy climates. In tropical climates where Europeans cannot thrive, there is no prospect of responsible government being introduced.

The "self-governing" colonies elect their assemblies and appoint their Ministers without interference from home. The essential characteristic of responsible as compared with representative government is that, as at home, an elected legislature controls the executive; it virtually puts in and turns out Ministers.

The "self-government," however, is not absolute. No act of the legislature is complete without the assent of the governor, and it has been the practice to specify in the Constitution Act, or in the instructions to the governor, certain subjects of general interest, such as currency, divorce, the army and navy, and rights of subjects not in the colony, and to direct him to "reserve" any Acts dealing with those subjects "for the signification of His Majesty's pleasure"; this provision gives the Secretary of State for the Colonies the power in effect to veto such Acts. A notable instance of the use of this veto was the case of a New South Wales Act, permitting marriage with a deceased wife's sister. But the Act was

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\* It was virtually decided early in 1906 that self-government should be granted to the Transvaal and Orange River Colony.

passed again and eventually allowed. The power is now very rarely exercised. Any exception from the grant of self-government seem invidious, and unless it is closely connected with strong Imperial interests it will remain a sore point. Thus the Constitution Act of Western Australia originally provided for a board, to be independent of the Colonial Government, to deal with questions affecting the aborigines, but this provision was resented, and was ultimately abandoned.

Where no reservation of this kind is in question and only local matters are concerned, the Crown, although constitutionally possessing the power to "disallow," or veto the Act of the colonial legislature, in practice rarely does so, and formal "allowance" is given almost always as a matter of course. Theoretically also the Imperial Parliament retains the right to legislate for the colonies on all subjects, but in practice it is careful not to encroach on the province of colonial legislatures, and when a bill affecting colonial interests—such as one on shipping—is under contemplation, great pains are taken to ascertain the views of the colonies. A curious instance of the variations produced by this separation of powers, is that a certificate of naturalisation granted in the United Kingdom under the Act does not confer on an alien any right in a colony; and naturalisation in one colony confers no rights either here or in any other colony. Thus a man may be a British subject in one part of the empire and a foreigner in another, and this will be the case till the Imperial Parliament makes naturalisation anywhere effective everywhere.

From time to time complaints have been addressed to the Home Government of proceedings of self-governing colonies, but "the right to complete and unfettered control over financial policy and arrangements is essential to self-government, and has been invariably acknowledged and respected by His Majesty's Government, and zealously guarded by the Colonies." This is an extract from a despatch written by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in 1898, to the Governor of Newfoundland, with regard to a protest sent to the former by the leaders of the Opposition in the colony against a conveyance to a private individual of all the railways, docks and telegraph lines, and of a considerable portion of the lands of the colony. It was urged with much force that such a sale was an abdication by the government of some of its most important functions, and was without parallel. Nevertheless the transaction was "essentially a matter of local finance," and the Secretary of State replied that, "when no Imperial interests are involved, or unless the measure was so radically vicious as to reflect discredit on the empire, of which Newfoundland forms a part, it would be improper for Her Majesty's Government to



intervene." He further intimated that "a breach of faith, or a confiscation of the rights of absent persons" would be a different matter.

*"Bicameral" Constitutions.*—It will be observed that the self-governing colonies, and to a great extent the Crown colonies, possess a "bicameral" constitution, *i.e.*, they have two legislative houses, one upper and one lower. In this they follow the English model, but the circumstances are different, as there is no hereditary class such as fills the House of Lords in this country. The upper houses were originally composed of members nominated either for a term of years or for life by the Crown, but the feeling in favour of direct representation of the people led to the creation of upper houses, the members of which are elected on a special and limited franchise. In Canada, New South Wales, Queensland, and New Zealand, and Natal, the members of the upper houses are still nominated by the Crown. The comparative advantages of the nomination and election system have been much discussed. The principal use of the upper house is that it may restrain the Government from acting contrary to the public interests or the public will. It is urged that nominees, *i.e.*, members appointed for a term of years by the Crown on the recommendation of the Government, will not do this. Nomination for life puts members further away from party influences, but the principle is contrary to democratic ideas, and has been adhered to only in the Legislative Councils of Queensland and New South Wales, the Senate of Canada, and the Legislative Councils of the Provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia. More usually the office is held for a term of about seven years, so that members retire in rotation; the Government can only fill up the vacancies as they occur, and the Chamber thus represents different parties in fair proportion to the periods during which they have been in power; if, however, a strong Government is in power and finds itself checked by the upper house, pressure may be brought to bear on the Government to increase the number of the council so as to enable the Government to prevail. On the other hand, if the chamber is elective, a special high franchise is invidious, and a strong man, if he has to rely on election, will appeal to the wider public; in fact there is a constant tendency to bring down the franchise for the upper house near to that of the lower, and the members of the former are more likely to resist those of the latter and so bring about a "deadlock" between the two chambers than nominee members are. The objection, in short, to the first system is that the upper house does too little, and to the second that it does too much. It is rather curious, in view of these difficulties, that a one-chamber system has never been tried in self-

governing colonies (except in certain Canadian provinces) and hardly ever suggested. One reason for this is that the upper chamber is believed to act as a useful check; another is that the Government does not always desire full responsibility, especially in matters of public works policy in which it is much pressed by a section of its supporters, and is content to allow the upper house to defeat a measure not important to the colony generally. In any case, the system secures the services of many able men, especially those of a careful and critical character, who would not face the ordeal of election by the full franchise. Both in the Australian Commonwealth and the Dominion of Canada it has been retained. In most of the Canadian provinces, however, the upper house has been discarded. In Australia the Senate, the upper house of the Commonwealth, is elected; in Canada the Senate is nominated. In a confederation an upper house may fulfil a purpose which does not exist in a single colony—it may represent the States directly, more or less on the same level, and not the general population, thus securing better representation to a small State than it gets when thrown in with the rest to elect members of the lower house.

*Local Federation.*—In an empire embracing so many units the question of local federation in a more or less complete form frequently arises. The complete form implies constitutional union under one governor, with joint representation in one legislature and a common body of law and courts of justice. But in practice cases of colonial federation are largely affected by the fact that the units so amalgamated have previously enjoyed their own separate laws and institutions, and the influences at work in favour of union are therefore actively combated by local interests and customs. The result is a tendency to leave a considerable amount of legislative authority and judicial jurisdiction in each of the original units, which become provinces or states of the federation, while the joint government is entrusted with the care of those interests which in a reasonable sense are common to all alike.

The working out of such schemes obviously admits of much variety both of principle and of detailed procedure. Broadly, it may be stated that there are two types, one in which the powers conferred on the provincial legislatures are strictly defined and limited, while large and general powers are given to the federal legislature, embracing all matters not specifically given to the others; while in the other this arrangement is reversed, the federal legislature being limited to special subjects, and the local legislatures covering everything which is not so specified. Of the first of these types the Canadian Dominion is the most notable instance; and of the second the

Commonwealth of Australia. In the former the provinces are represented in both Houses of the Dominion Legislature on a population basis; while in the latter, as in the United States, the conception of independent states is maintained by each of them, whatever its size, having the same voting power in the Senate. The Dominion Government can disallow Provincial Acts, the Commonwealth Government cannot. In both cases the Federal Government follows the Cabinet system of England, and not the Presidential system of the United States, *i.e.*, it is directly associated with and controlled by the Houses of Parliament.

The strongest motive for such unions is usually the abolition of customs duties on the borders of neighbouring states. Thus in Australia, before the federation, each colony imposed upon its neighbour the same tariff as against the outward world; and the inconvenience of this was greatly felt. Another motive is the construction of great works for the common benefit, such as the Canadian Pacific Railway, the proposal for which went far to consolidate Canada, and in addition to the considerations of a larger purse and greater material influence, there should no doubt be reckoned the larger intellectual horizon which is conferred by membership of a great country in the place of a comparatively small locality.

Failing federation, the advantages of a common tariff may be secured by a Customs Union, such as is known in Europe as a "Zollverein." Under this arrangement the same duties are charged at all the points of entry into the associated territories, and the proceeds are divided among the members according to arrangement. The only example of this system in the British Empire is in South Africa, where the Cape, Natal, Transvaal, Orange River Colony and Rhodesia, in 1903, established a kind of Customs Union. Each colony under this arrangement keeps its own separate receipts, the collection being made by the coast colonies, and contributions to the cost being made by the inland colonies. This is not, however, a true Customs Union, in which the receipts would be pooled and distributed on a fixed basis of calculation. Some day this further step may be reached, for it is clear that waste and friction would be avoided if all the South African possessions could be treated as an economic whole. A special reason in this case is the management of the railways, which run from the coast of Cape Colony, Natal and Portuguese East Africa to the interior (Transvaal and Orange River Colony in particular), and which could be worked more effectively and harmoniously if they were administered under one authority.

*Foreign Relations.*—Foreign relations are in the hands of the Home Government, and all correspondence on international

questions must be conducted by them. The most important cases of this kind are those which arise between Canada and the United States. Thus various boundary questions have arisen, the latest being that of Alaska, brought forward prominently by the discoveries of gold there. Another recent question with that same Power was that of the right of Canadians to fish without restriction for seals in Behring's Sea. Both of these questions were settled by arbitration. In such matters there is a growing tendency to allow the self-governing colony to be strongly represented in the negotiations.

*Foreign Types.*—The British Empire contains no type of the Colony which is regarded, as Algeria is, as a territorial part of the mother country. The French chambers alone legislate for Algeria.

Similarly the United States recognise "non-contiguous territorial divisions," which have the same right as any other United States "territory" as distinguished from a state. Such are the Hawaiian Islands, Alaska, and Porto Rico, in which places the customs law of the United States applies.





## CHAPTER III.—ADMINISTRATION.

*Administration of a Crown Colony.*—The administration of a self-governing colony follows closely that of the mother country; that of a Crown colony on the other hand, is differentiated by the fact of the control of the Home Government, the predominance of the official or nominated element, and to some extent by the necessity of the Government doing work which in more developed communities can be left to private enterprise. It may be useful, therefore, to sketch the various features of the administration of a Crown colony.

At the head is the governor, the local representative of the Crown. He holds his post during the King's pleasure, but his term of office in any one colony is by custom fixed usually at six years.

He acts in most cases with—but not necessarily in accordance with—the advice of his executive council. He initiates all legislation, and exercises the prerogative of mercy. All correspondence with the Home Government is conducted by him.

The executive council is composed of the most important officials, sometimes with the addition of a few unofficial members of the legislature. Its deliberations are private, and its members are bound not to reveal its proceedings without the governor's sanction. The governor need not adopt the advice of the majority of the executive council, but as a matter of fact he generally does so. If he overrules their view he has to report the matter to the Secretary of State for the Colonies. In his administration he is bound by the laws of the colony, the Royal Instructions, and other instruments defining his position, and by the Colonial Regulations and Financial Instructions issued by the Secretary of State. The approval of the latter has to be obtained to all expenditure, appointments above a certain salary, and generally to all new proposals of importance.

The channel through which all ordinary communications between the Government and the public pass is the Secretariat, and the head of that department, the Colonial Secretary, is the pivot of the administration. He is the governor's right-hand man and principal adviser, and the main representative of the Government in the legislature, where the governor, who acts as chairman, only interposes on important occasions. The Colonial Secretary's duties are multitudinous; he is in most colonies

responsible for the preparation of the annual budget; he is probably a member of numerous boards and committees; in most colonies he acts in the governor's place during the latter's illness or absence from the colony, and on his capacity and tact depends to a very large extent the harmonious working of the administration.

The heads of the other departments in most cases communicate with the governor through the Colonial Secretary, and from him receive the governor's instructions.

Besides the judiciary, consisting of a chief justice and one or more puisne judges, and the magistrates, who are often members of the ordinary civil service of the colony, there are the law officers, *i.e.*, the attorney-general and the solicitor-general. The attorney-general is in most cases a member *ex officio* of the legislature, and pilots through it those ordinances—as colonial laws are usually called—which deal with legal matters.

Then there are the ordinary administrative officers, such as the treasurer, who is the financial adviser, accountant and paymaster of the Government :

The auditor-general, who superintends the auditing of the colony's accounts, and is responsible for seeing that all expenditure has been properly sanctioned :

The principal collector of customs, who supervises the collection of this usually important branch of the revenue :

The registrar-general, who looks after the registration of lands, births and deaths :

The postmaster-general, and the heads of the police and the prisons services.

Besides these there are the heads of what may be called the scientific and technical departments. Such are the head of the medical department; the director of public works, whose department carries out the repair of roads and bridges, the erection of buildings, and all the miscellaneous works which are not sufficiently important or exceptional as to require a special engineer and staff to be sent out from England to carry them out; the general manager of the Government railways (if there are any); the surveyor-general, who is at the head of the department of surveys, which may be engaged on the primary triangulation of the colony, or on large scale surveys of numerous petty estates, according to the extent to which the colony is opened up to occupiers; the director of education; and perhaps a conservator of forests.

Of course, only the large colonies possess such a staff of heads of departments. In the smaller several of the above offices are either non-existent or are combined under one man.

The sanction of the legislature is required for all expenditure. Such sanction may be given once for all, as in the case of a civil list ordinance, or annually, as in the yearly estimates or

financial votes. In nearly all colonies, as at home, measures directly entailing expenditure cannot be proposed in the legislature except by or with the approval of the Government, such a provision being essential for securing the control of the finances by the Government.

The policy and work of a coming year is practically settled in connection with the estimates of revenue and expenditure, which, like the Budget at home, are prepared by the Colonial Government and submitted for approval and the necessary appropriation ordinances to the legislature. The estimates have to be sent home for the sanction of the Secretary of State, and in consequence they have to be prepared usually some considerable time before the commencement of the financial year. Most of the varying expenditure, moreover, is incurred on public works, and before the sum required can be fixed it is frequently necessary to have schemes settled and calculations made by experts in this country. Undertakings of this character therefore proceed deliberately; but if, as a result, progress sometimes seems slow, the general result is that the money is well spent and the finances of the Crown colonies are in good condition. The Home Government exercises control because it is "ultimately responsible for the solvency of the Colony," and must therefore "ensure that the measures which they may consider necessary are carried out." (Mr. Chamberlain's despatch to the Governor of Jamaica, August 22nd, 1899.)

The estimates, when passed, form the basis of the year's work. Every head of a department knows from them what he is expected to do and what money he is allowed to do it with. His accounts of expenditure therefore follow the lines of the estimates, and he must not exceed the specified sums without authority from the Governor, who can, if necessary, propose supplementary estimates which pass through the same stages as the original estimates. Any unexpended balances at the end of the year are repaid into the Treasury.

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## CHAPTER IV.—LEGISLATION.

*Political Reform.*—The colonies have led the way in advance of the mother country in many political matters. The Australian Colonies first introduced the ballot in Parliamentary elections; registration of titles to land; graduated death duties; and free primary education. Old-age pensions have been established in New South Wales, Victoria and New Zealand. The franchise has been extended to women in South Australia, Western Australia, New South Wales, Tasmania and New Zealand, and generally for both houses of the Commonwealth Parliament. Members of Parliament are paid in most of the self-governing colonies.

*Labour Questions.*—The Australian Colonies have been conspicuous in recent years by the vigour with which they have attacked labour questions. There are Factory Acts, providing for boards, which fix the rate of wages. New Zealand is the most advanced in such matters. It has passed Acts making arbitration compulsory in labour disputes; closing shops (with some exceptions) for one afternoon in each week, and defining the hours of work of women and young persons in them; and providing for compensation for workmen in all accidents, unless caused by the serious and wilful misconduct of the person injured; while to meet the difficulty of a great expense falling on the employer, an Act has been passed to insure employers against the risk of paying compensation. Large sums have been advanced to settlers on mortgage at  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., the amount outstanding in 1905 being about £4,200,000. New Zealand has also passed old-age pension laws, under which subjects of white descent, who have resided for twenty-five continuous years in the colony, and are of good character, become entitled at the age of sixty-five, to a pension of £26 yearly. The sums thus being paid annually amounted in 1905 to £200,000, and the number of pensions granted was about 20,000.

*Crown Lands.*—The policy of encouraging settlement by grants of Crown land on easy conditions has been general, and in this matter Australasia has been in a very fortunate position, owing to the fact that the unoccupied lands were claimed by the Crown. Thus, in New South Wales, Crown lands to the extent of 200,000 acres per annum may be disposed of by auction, at



low "upset" (minimum) prices, £1 5s. 0d. per acre being that for country land. Canada possesses a great amount of Crown land, and in many districts settlers can obtain grants of 160 acres without payment, on condition of making certain improvements on the land.

*Immigration.\**—The Australasian Colonies have protected themselves against the influx of Asiatic labourers by laws imposing a tax on every one landed. They also keep out all persons who fail to pass a test in writing in English, or who have entered into a contract made elsewhere to work for an employer, but a permit can be obtained in the latter case on certain conditions (the pay must be as good as that current locally).

Cape and Natal have restriction acts on similar lines, but in the latter large numbers of Indian coolies have been brought in on five years' indentures; these coolies can remain in the colony at the end of the five years on payment of £3, and about 90 per cent. do remain; there are now about 70,000 of these time-expired coolies, and altogether over 100,000 Asiatics against 97,000 whites—a position which causes some misgiving.

Canada imposes a tax of \$500 on every Chinaman entering the Dominion.

On the other hand tropical colonies which cannot employ white labour on the plantations, encourage the importation of coolies from India, the usual arrangement being that the Colonial Government imports the coolies and recovers the cost from the planters who employ the men. The coolies are engaged in India for a term of years, usually seven, this being what is meant by "indentured labour," and at the end of the term, if they wish, they are sent back to India. Such arrangements exist in Natal, Mauritius, Fiji, and the principal West Indian Colonies. The policy, however, is exposed to much criticism wherever there is any risk of excluding white labour by Asiatics, the consideration on the one hand being the development of territory in ways which it may be impracticable for the white man to undertake, and on the other, the physical and moral dangers which may be attendant on the introduction of a large alien population. In Queensland, until recently, "Kanakas," or natives from the South Sea Islands, were imported for work mainly on sugar plantations, but this has been stopped. Large numbers of Chinese were introduced recently into the Transvaal to work in the mines, under strict rules confining

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\* Pamphlets and circulars giving information useful to intending emigrants, can be obtained from the Emigrants' Information Office, 31, Broadway, Westminster.

them to the mine premises on which they work ; but the policy met with much opposition in this country, and has now been stopped pending a decision as to the grant of responsible government to the colony. In all these cases there is the difficulty that the white man will not work alongside the coloured, even if he can, and thus where coloured labour is employed, ordinary work becomes dishonourable in his eyes.

*Public Works.*—A considerable amount of legislation in the colonies is devoted to the raising of funds for the construction of public works, such as railways and harbours, which in this country are undertaken by private enterprises or municipal bodies, and to the management of the undertakings subsequently. A colony is in such matter like a municipal corporation in this country, the external financial control of the Local Government Board in the latter case being, in the case of Crown Colonies, represented by that of the Secretary of State.

The money acquired for these and the other expense of administration is raised to a large extent by the Customs duties. These duties are very important matters, and are constantly being considered by the legislatures.

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## CHAPTER V.—TRADE.

*Colonial Products.*—Great Britain is supplied from Canada and Australasia with a large number of food-stuffs, including cattle, meat, bacon, butter, cheese, corn, eggs, fruit, and wine, and also certain raw materials for her industries which could not be produced in bulk at home, such as asbestos, flax, hemp, skins and furs, timber and wool.

*Tropical Production.*—From the tropical and sub-tropical colonies treasures of a most varied character are poured out, and as wealth and civilisation increase these products are more and more in demand. It has been estimated that such regions supply the countries of the temperate zone with products to the value of £200,000,000 annually; and in the United States, out of imports to the total value of about £172,000,000, £70,000,000, or about 40 per cent., are spent on tropical imports. If the proportion is so large in a country like the United States, which itself produces an enormous quantity of products which we regard as tropical, it is easy to understand the importance of this trade to Great Britain. We import, for example, every year cotton to the value of about £40,000,000, tea £10,000,000, gutta-percha and rubber £7,000,000, fibres £5,000,000, fruits and oils £6,000,000. Of the 140 colonies in the world over 100 are situate in the tropics, and these contain a population roughly estimated at 450 millions. It might appear from this that there is little danger of supplies falling short or commanding exorbitant prices, but, on the other hand, there are practical limitations, such as the difficulty of securing regular labour in hot countries, the difficulty of locomotion and transport across jungles and marshes, the rapid deterioration of plant, and the risks to health and life. Recent enhancements in the value of such staple products as cotton, sugar, tobacco and rubber tend to show that the importance of tropical possessions is increasing and will increase.

*Distributing Colonies.* — Great Britain also, alone of the colonising Powers, possesses a number of colonies which act as distributing centres, and which in connection with her maritime trade are of enormous service. Gibraltar and Malta serve not only as naval stations, but as “entre-dépôts” or emporia from which goods are conveniently distributed over a large

neighbouring area. Hong Kong performs a similar function for the trade with China, and Singapore for that with the neighbouring countries.

*The Colonies as Purchasers.*—The other aspect of the matter is the value of the colonies as purchasers from the mother country. These purchases embrace almost all the finished products required for civilised life—arms, machinery, tools, railway and telegraph material, steel and ironwork, clothing and textile stuffs, soaps and candles, carriages and saddlery, books and pictures, glass and pottery, furniture, preserved provisions, medicines, scientific instruments, paper and stationery, leather and rubber goods, &c. The colonies take about one-third of the exports of the United Kingdom, and supply rather more than one-fifth of its imports; of their own external trade, imports and exports together, about half is done with the mother country. About five-sixths of our exports to the colonies are manufactured goods; about one-third of our imports from them are foods.

*Commercial Independence of the Colonies.*—All the colonies which possess any local representation are practically free to adopt their own fiscal systems, provided only that there is no discrimination in favour of foreign countries against Great Britain, and, generally speaking, import duties are substantial and indicate a protection policy wherever there are local industries for internal demands. It may therefore be asked, and used frequently to be asked in the middle of the last century: "Whether all the commercial advantages that result from this relation, whatever they may be, would not be equally secured, if only a free commercial relation existed, and that of administration were to cease?"—"Cyclopædia of Political Knowledge, 1848.) And it has been argued that the political bond is only a cause of expense to the mother country, which has to pay the cost of protecting a vast system, besides making numerous grants of money to individual possessions, and that the trade with the colonies would be as ample if they were independent as it is now; for "nations, like individuals, will, if let alone, buy where they can buy cheapest, and sell where they can dearest."—(*Ibid.*)

*Does Trade follow the Flag?*—This view of the colonies, however, besides being nakedly utilitarian, may be met on its own ground by certain practical considerations. There is no doubt that a number of influences combine to make "trade follow the flag," and to cause a colony to trade, *cæteris paribus*, more with the mother country than with any other country.



No doubt traders all the world over endeavour on the whole to buy in the cheapest and to sell in the dearest market, but they are influenced in making their purchases or selecting their markets by their manufacturing and financial connections and their knowledge of the products and requirements of their own country. The exchange of newspapers, catalogues and correspondence in the same language is also an important factor ; and the operations of banks, companies, insurance offices, shipping agencies, and the like, which have their headquarters at home and connections in the colonies, have a vast influence. All these financial and commercial operations are based largely on the feeling of security and confidence which is given by the political bond of union.

Moreover, all the public loans of the colonies are issued, and most of the big companies financed, in London. Here is the heart which is continually pumping capital through the arteries of the empire, and the ease of the process depends on the existence of an organic whole. These loans must be largely paid for in goods, and help largely to direct the course of trade.

*Fiscal Policy.*—A question which has recently been brought forward very prominently is whether it would be advantageous to endeavour to strengthen the commercial connection by means of reciprocity arrangements between the United Kingdom and the colonies, under which each party would take goods from the other with more favourable treatment than from any other place. Some points of the controversy may be put shortly, though without any attempt to do more than indicate the claims of the opposing parties. The advocates of reciprocity with the colonies urge that the empire can, practically speaking, produce every material that civilisation requires ; and that, with reciprocity, the trade between the mother country and the colonies would be greatly increased. The proposal is to place light duties in this country on selected foreign imports which the colonies readily produce, the object being, not to protect any home industry, but to differentiate between colonial and foreign products in favour of the former. The ideal of this policy is the development of a self-sufficing empire, which, trading between its different parts in every sort of produce, would be largely independent of the tariff-protected countries.

It is admitted that a reciprocity arrangement between a country and its colony tends to increase the proportion of trade between the two, *i.e.*, the country and the colony send more exports to one another than they would otherwise do, and, therefore, the proportion of this trade to the foreign trade is greater ; but on the other hand it is argued that this is at the risk of decreasing the gross trade, for as each place presumably buys the goods of the other at a higher price than it would in

the open market, it to this extent loses capital and also increases the cost of production, and is thereby handicapped in developing its industries and supplying outside markets. Thus the French colonies which have free trade with France take 70 per cent. of their imports from France and send to her 65 per cent. of their exports; while in the French West African Colonies, where this system does not obtain, the figures are only 47 and 46 per cent. respectively. On the other hand it is questionable whether the French colonies, which are restricted to this extent to taking their imports from France, obtain as large a gross trade as they would without such preferential treatment, and their slow commercial development lends countenance to this view.

The problem seems to turn largely on the potential capacity of the colonies to furnish an ample supply of our requirements. At present, as stated above, they supply only about one-fifth of our wants. It is urged that this proportion could be greatly increased if colonial products were admitted on easier terms than foreign.

In the matter of the most important requirement—grain—the enormous territories in Canada and India awaiting the hand of the farmer undoubtedly ensure that ability. Similarly, Australasia could supply us with most of the imported meat and wool.

To meet any increases of price which might occur pending the developments which are anticipated, it is proposed that the existing taxes on foodstuffs—such as tea and sugar—should be lowered to a degree corresponding to the new taxation on grain and other staple colonial products. In this way the total taxation on foodstuffs generally would remain much the same as at present. The answer given to this proposal is that the taxes would be in fact on the most necessary articles of food, and would, therefore, fall most heavily on the poorest, and that the proper policy is to reduce, and not to maintain, taxes on food.

Another consideration is that, although there is land enough in the empire to produce what we want, the price of production would go up, and with it the costs of the products, as the range of activity reached less convenient quarters. Thus it has been said, and truly, that the empire could produce all the cotton required, but hardly at the present prices.

In two cases preferential treatment has already been given in colonies to our products: Canada allowing our imports a rebate of  $33\frac{1}{3}$  per cent. of the tariff rates, and the South African Colonies a rebate of 25 per cent. of the duty in certain cases and of the whole duty when that is  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. *ad valorem*, without any corresponding favours on our part.

*Foreign Practice.*—The French practice as to colonial tariffs varies, but as a rule imports from the colonies into France or from France into the colonies enter free, while foreign imports pay the duties of the French tariff. Portugal and Spain generally follow the same system. Germany, the Netherlands and Belgium, on the other hand, have no such preferential arrangements. The United States follow the French plan in the Hawaiian Islands, Alaska and Porto Rico; but in the Philippines there is a special tariff, under which imports from the United States pay the same duties as those from other countries.



## PART II.—THE COLONIES.

## 1.—BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

## CANADA.

The Dominion of Canada comprises the whole of the northern half of North America, with the exception of Alaska on the west, which belongs to the United States, and the coast of Labrador on the east, which is under the jurisdiction of Newfoundland.

On the north it is bounded by the Arctic Ocean, on the west by Alaska and the Pacific Ocean, on the east by Davis Straits, the Labrador coast and the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and on the south by the Atlantic Ocean and the United States. From the last named it is separated by a boundary partly natural and partly artificial which runs from the mouth of the St. Croix River in the Bay of Fundy up its course to the head of Lake Chiputnecook, thence due north to the St. John River, and up that river and one of its tributaries till it reaches the watershed which separates the valley of the St. Lawrence from the region which drains into the Atlantic. The boundary then follows the watershed as far as the 45th parallel of north latitude, and runs along that parallel to the St. Lawrence. It then follows the course of that river and of Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron and Superior, to the mouth of the Pigeon River, whence it reaches the north-west angle of Lake of the Woods. From that point it follows the 49th parallel to the Straits of Georgia, and thence passes south of Vancouver Island to the Pacific Ocean.

The Dominion has an area of about  $3\frac{3}{4}$  million square miles, of which about 125,000 square miles are water. It is thus the largest of all the British possessions, and its land area is about forty times that of Great Britain. It is about 3,500 miles from east to west, and 1,400 miles from north to south.

Canada consists of nine provinces—Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, British Columbia, Saskatchewan and Alberta; and the North-west and Yukon Territories.



The total population in 1901 was about 5,371,000. About 1,650,000 of the people are of French extraction, of whom over 1,300,000 reside in the Province of Quebec, where French is the usual language spoken. The Indians number about 94,000, and there are about 30,000 half-breeds. These are under the supervision of Government agents, and have large districts reserved for them, where they live mainly by hunting and fishing, though in Ontario they are successful farmers.

Unlike that of Australia the population of Canada is mainly a country and agricultural one, and there are only two large towns—Montreal (267,730) and Toronto (208,040). Others of importance, but of smaller size, are Quebec (68,840), Ottawa, the seat of Government of the Dominion (59,928), Hamilton (52,634), Winnipeg (42,340), St. John (40,711), and Halifax (40,832).

The principal physical features of Canada, are the Rocky Mountains in the west, the Laurentian Range and the St. Lawrence River in the east, the Great Lakes and plains of the interior, and Hudson Bay, which, with its southern prolongation, James Bay, runs from the north-east into the heart of the Dominion. Hudson Bay is a vast sheet of water, with an area a little over one-third that of the Mediterranean. To the south and south-east of the Bay stretches the great woodland region comprising the Maritime Provinces of Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and the Old Canadian Provinces of Quebec and Ontario. To the west and south-west lies the great prairie region of Canada. This consists of three vast level or gently undulating plateaux, the height of which above sea-level averages 800, 1,600, and 3,000 feet respectively, rising from east to west. Out of these great plateaux, which, though varying in character, are all splendidly adapted for agriculture, have been carved the three great corn-growing provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta. To the north and north-west of Hudson Bay are the Arctic slopes of the great continent, the basin of the Mackenzie, and the district of Yukon; while to the west of the prairie region is the mountainous province of British Columbia, with the Rocky Mountains as its eastern and highest rampart and the island-fringed Pacific as its western boundary.

Canada is remarkable for its magnificent inland water-system. From the great highway to the sea—the St. Lawrence—one passes through Lake Ontario (7,330 square miles), up the Niagara River and past the celebrated falls by the Welland Canal to Lake Erie (10,000 square miles), thence by the Detroit River to Lake St. Clair (360 square miles), from which the St. Clair River leads to Lake Huron (which with its annexe, Georgian Bay, has an area of 24,000 square miles). The Sault Ste. Marie River and canals connect Lake Huron

with Lake Superior (31,420 square miles), while Lake Michigan (25,590 square miles) which is connected with Lake Huron by the Strait of Mackinaw lies wholly within the United States.

The other principal lakes are Winnipeg (9,400 square miles), Winnipegosis (2,030 square miles), and Manitoba (1,900 square miles) in the Province of Manitoba, and Lakes Athabasca (4,400 square miles), Great Slave (10,100 square miles), and Great Bear (11,200 square miles) in the basin of the Mackenzie.

The principal rivers, besides the St. Lawrence with its tributaries, the Ottawa, St. Maurice, and Saguenay on the left bank, and the Richelieu on the right, are the Mackenzie (2,400 miles in length) running out of Great Slave Lake, the Slave River running into that lake from Lake Athabasca, the Peace and Athabasca Rivers running into Lake Athabasca, the Great Fish River which flows into the Arctic Ocean, the Saskatchewan and Red Rivers which flow into Lake Winnipeg, the Nelson River through which the waters of that lake discharge into Hudson Bay, the Churchill, Severn, Tyrrell and Albany Rivers which also discharge into the Bay, the St. John River in New Brunswick, and the Fraser River in British Columbia.

The chief mountains are the Rocky Mountains in the west, extending from the Arctic Ocean to the United States, with an average height of about 10,000 feet. The highest peaks are Mount Hooker (16,760 feet), Mount Brown (16,000 feet), and Mount Murchison (15,700 feet). West of the Rocky Mountains and parallel to them and to the coast runs the Cascade Range, which in places reaches 10,000 feet in height. The Laurentian Range divides the basins of the St. Lawrence River and Hudson Bay.

The coast line of Canada may be divided into the Atlantic, the Arctic and Hudson Bay, and the Pacific coasts.

The Atlantic coast is deeply indented, containing numerous fine harbours, and is the scene of lucrative fisheries. The Bay of Fundy nearly separates Nova Scotia altogether from the continent, and is characterized by its tides, which show a rise and fall sometimes of seventy feet and cause the celebrated tidal wave which rushes up the Bay. Among the numerous inlets from this Bay is the Annapolis basin, on the shores of which—at Port Royal—the French and the English alike made their first settlements in the Dominion. In the centre of the south-east coast of Nova Scotia is the fine harbour and naval station of Halifax, the Atlantic winter port of Canada. To the north-east of Nova Scotia is Cape Breton Island, on the east coast of which was the French fortress of Louisbourg. To the west of Cape Breton Island and the north of Nova Scotia is Prince Edward Island, which, though only about 2,000 square

miles in extent, constitutes a separate province of the Dominion. In the Gulf of St. Lawrence also are the islands of Anticosti and Magdalen, which belong to the province of Quebec, while along the shores are numerous inlets, such as Miramichi Bay and Chaleur Bay. Passing from the Gulf through the Straits of Belle Isle, between Labrador and Newfoundland, one reaches Hamilton Inlet, which runs for many miles into the interior of Labrador.

Hudson Bay is entered from the east by Hudson Strait, and from the north by Fox Channel, which separates Baffin's Land from the continent. Other islands off the Arctic coast are Prince Albert Land and Prince of Wales Island. The Arctic coast is little known: it follows approximately the 70th parallel of north latitude, but several peninsulas project further north.

The coast-line of British Columbia extends from the Portland Channel on the north to the 47th parallel. It much resembles the coast of Norway, being indented by many inlets and fringed by islands, between which and the sea are deep and well sheltered channels. Of these islands the largest are Vancouver Island and Queen Charlotte Island.

The climate of Canada, of course, varies greatly with the locality. The maritime provinces of the east have a damp and insular climate and grain crops are less successful than elsewhere, though along the shores of the Bay of Fundy, warmed by the Gulf Stream, pears, plums and apples grow well. In the interior of Canada the summers of the southern parts are finer and hotter than those of England, and wheat and other grains grow to perfection. Bright cloudless days, with no rain, continue for many weeks. Grapes, melons and peaches ripen in the open air in many parts of Quebec, Ontario, and British Columbia. The winters however in the interior are severe though dry and healthy. The snow covers the ground for months, the rivers and smaller lakes are frozen over, and navigation does not begin again till the middle of March or April. In British Columbia, which is washed by a warm Pacific current, the winter temperature is comparatively high, while Vancouver Island has a winter climate much resembling that of the South of England.

The less settled districts of the Dominion still contain many wild animals, and for well over two centuries Canada has been one of the main fur-producing countries. In the forests of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Quebec, moose are plentiful; deer are found in the wilder parts of Ontario; while British Columbia is celebrated for its elk, deer, bears, and other large game. The bison, which once roamed the prairies in vast herds, have been killed off, but smaller game and fur-bearing animals still abound, and birds are numerous.

Canada is celebrated for its forests, which still cover vast areas, over one-third of the total land surface of the Dominion being forest and woodland country. The North-West plains are the least, and British Columbia the most thickly-wooded districts. The forests are composed of a great variety of trees. Foremost are the white pine, which forms large forests in Ontario, Quebec, and the other eastern provinces; the spruces, white and black, which are found in all parts of Canada; and the Douglas fir, the great cedars, and the yellow cypress of British Columbia. The sugar, maple, oaks, elm, ash, birch, and poplars, are also plentiful.

*History.*—The history of Canada is largely that of those lands of Old Canada and Acadia, which for well over a century formed the fairest portion of the Colonial Empire of the French, and finally passed into the possession of their English rivals. It must be told in conjunction with the story of those settlements to the south, which for nearly the same length of time were first in the rank of British Colonies, and then, seceding from the mother country, became the United States of America.

The old Icelandic sagas, or poetic chronicles, relate the discovery of the shores of what must have been North America by Leif, son of Eric the Red, in the eleventh century. But, save in the sagas, no traces remain of those early Norseman voyages, and the authentic history of North America commences with the discovery of the West Indies in 1492 by Christopher Columbus, and of Newfoundland and Cape Breton by John and Sebastian Cabot in 1497–8. During the sixteenth century the coasts of North America were visited by various bold navigators, French, Portuguese, and English. In 1517 Sebastian Cabot discovered Hudson Bay, and in 1524 Giovanni da Verrazana, a Florentine with a commission from Francis I., sailed along the coast of North America from Florida to Cape Breton and claimed the region for the French king under the name of New France. Ten years after, Jacques Cartier of St. Malo, was commissioned by Francis I. to find a short passage to China. In his first voyage (1534) Cartier explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence. In 1535–6 he made a second voyage and discovered the St. Lawrence river, up which he sailed as far as the Indian town of Hochelaga on the island of Montreal. Here he was well received by the Indians. In 1541 Cartier again visited Montreal.

In 1542, an attempt was made by de Roberval to found a French colony on the banks of the St. Lawrence, but it proved a failure, and for half a century nothing was done to establish European settlements on the great river which Cartier had found.

From an early date in the sixteenth century, sailors—French, Portuguese, and English—had however frequented the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the banks and shores of Newfoundland for



fishing purposes, and in 1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert made an abortive attempt to establish a settlement in Newfoundland.

Meantime in the West Indies and Central America, the Spaniards had been rapidly building up their great empire. For some years after the discoveries of Columbus Hispaniola remained the only regular settlement, but in 1511 Cuba was conquered, and the years 1520-1 saw the conquest of Mexico by Cortes, while the still richer conquest of Peru was accomplished by Pizarro in 1532-3. Although Elizabethan sailors like Sir Francis Drake had attacked and done much damage to the Spanish Settlements, the power of Spain was still too great to be more than shaken, and English, French and Dutch were for the most part reduced to seeking sites for their settlements in the temperate regions of the north which the Spanish had neglected.

In 1585, Sir Walter Raleigh landed a number of colonists in Virginia, but they had to be brought home in great distress the next year by Sir Francis Drake. Of another settlement made by John White in 1587 no trace could be found, when, after the Spanish Armada had been defeated, it was possible to send relief to them.

In the first permanent settlement on the North American continent, the English were ahead of the French by nearly two years. In 1606, a charter was obtained by the Virginia Company for the establishment of a plantation in America, between what are now South Carolina and Nova Scotia. About 140 emigrants sailed at the end of the year, and in April, 1607, reached Chesapeake Bay, where, at the mouth of the James River, they established themselves. At first the colony was administered by a local council supervised from home by the Royal Council of Virginia, a sort of Colonial Committee of the Privy Council. This arrangement however, soon broke down, and after a spell of government by the Royal Virginia Company, which had hitherto found the money and conducted the business arrangements of the youthful colony, representative institutions were, in 1619, established with an Assembly of burgesses. The tobacco industry was the foundation of the prosperity of Virginia, and the country thus became parcelled out in large plantations. The lack of labour led to the introduction in 1620 of negro slaves from West Africa but for some fifty years these remained only a small proportion of the population.

The owners of the estates formed a sort of squireocracy; there was little town life, and no traders or artisans. Indentured labour was obtained from the poorer rural population of England.

The New England colonies to the north were composed of very different elements. The first settlement was formed by the

Pilgrim Fathers, English Independents, who emigrated to obtain freedom of worship. A Chartered Company was formed in London in 1620 and obtained a concession from the Virginia Council. The Mayflower sailed in September of that year, and reached Plymouth in December. This was a more northerly destination than was intended and outside the scope of the Virginia Charter. A new Charter was obtained in the following year. The London shareholders surrendered their rights in the course of a few years to the actual settlers, and thereafter slow but steady progress was made. Slave and indentured labour were prohibited by the principles of the settlement. The colonists organized their own government. They elected a governor, and there was an assembly of all the freemen in the settlement. Subsequently the rise of other townships led to the election of Deputies.

The Massachusetts Company, which obtained a Charter in 1629, was formed by a group of Puritans, who remained members of the Church of England. The settlement included merchants, clergy and country gentlemen from England. Boston was the seat of administration and the chief centre of trade. The governor and his assistants were elected by the settlers, and in 1634 an assembly, elected by ballot, met at Boston. The governor and his assistants formed an upper house. By 1640 there were in Massachusetts 20,000 people almost entirely of English and Puritan origin. The majority of the inhabitants were yeomen farmers, but fishing and ship-building were important occupations. Harvard College was founded in 1636.

The settlement at Maryland in 1632 was of the Virginian type. It was a proprietary colony under charter to Lord Baltimore, the owner. A representative assembly was established on the Virginian model in 1647 with the proprietor as governor. The settlement was based on religious toleration.

The settlements of Connecticut and Rhode Island had their origin in the religious bitterness of Massachusetts. These settlements date from 1636 to 1640. To the north of Massachusetts settlements were made by emigrants from England sent out by the New England Company, joined by religious exiles from Boston. Hence arose New Hampshire and Maine.

Holland mainly confined her efforts to the Eastern Seas and Brazil; her dominion in North America did not last long. Hudson while searching vainly for the North-West Passage to China had sailed up the Hudson River in 1609, and in 1622 the settlement of New Amsterdam was planted where New York now stands. The position of the Dutch settlements which grew up round New Amsterdam and received the name of the New Netherlands was, however, such as to render them certain to be attacked by the British Colonies in the event of a war

between the two mother countries. The New Netherlands formed a barrier between the New England colonies of the north and the southern group of which Virginia was chief, while the valley of the Hudson formed part of the highway which, completed by Lake Champlain and the Richelieu River, led from the Atlantic coast to the valley of the St. Lawrence between Quebec and Montreal. That the gate which led into the heart of the French territory should be in the hands of the English was a natural desire, in view of the continual hostilities in America between the two races. Accordingly when Charles II. went to war with Holland in 1663, the Dutch settlements were attacked and easily captured, and by the treaty of Breda (1667) the English were confirmed in the possession of what were to form the colonies of New York and New Jersey. The land to the west of these States was granted in 1681 to William Penn, the Quaker, who established there a colony composed mainly of Dutch and Swedes, Rhenish and French Protestants, and Quakers. Pennsylvania as it was called soon grew in importance. Freedom of religion and government aided by good natural resources attracted many settlers and an export trade in fur, grain, hides and timber grew up. By the end of the century 20,000 persons had settled in the colony, and Philadelphia had become second only to Boston in economic importance.

Having thus briefly sketched the establishment of the English on the Atlantic seaboard from Florida to the Bay of Fundy, we may now turn to the progress of the French in Acadia and the valley of the St. Lawrence.

The settlement of Acadia, as Nova Scotia was then called, dates from 1605, when Baron de Poutrincourt planted a colony at Port Royal on the Annapolis basin, but the French Government revoked his Charter and the settlement was broken up in 1607. After considerable difficulty, the Baron obtained a renewal of his grant from Henri IV. and returned to Port Royal. In 1610 Jesuits were introduced, and the natives who were very friendly to the French were converted to Roman Catholicism.

In 1613 however the weak settlement was attacked and destroyed by a party from an armed vessel commanded by Samuel Argall, who had been despatched for that purpose by the Governor of Virginia. Though Port Royal was destroyed, a certain number of its former inhabitants remained in Acadia and built a rude fort at Cape Sable. In 1621, Sir William Alexander, a Scotch favourite of James I., induced that monarch to make him a grant of Acadia, which he re-named Nova Scotia, and in 1628 he sent out a small Scotch colony which established itself on the shores of the Annapolis basin. By the treaty of St. Germain (1632) however, the French

regained exclusive possession of Acadia and most of the Scotch left the country.

The French sent out a number of settlers who soon commenced to quarrel with the earlier French inhabitants. The disputes between Charles de la Tour, who had held the colony for France since 1623, and the Chevalier d'Aunay, who after the death of Razilly had become governor, eventually resulted in open war, in which De la Tour received assistance from the English Colony of Massachusetts. His fort however, though gallantly defended by his wife, was finally taken by d'Aunay, and for some years de la Tour was a fugitive. In 1651 after d'Aunay's death, he became Governor of Acadia, but in 1654 an English fleet, which had been sent by Cromwell to attack the Dutch settlements, receiving news that peace had been made between England and Holland, turned its course to Acadia, which quickly fell into its hands. It was granted by Letters Patent to de la Tour (who had accepted English rule), Sir T. Temple and Wm. Crowne, and was held by the English till 1670 when, in somewhat tardy compliance with the Treaty of Breda (1667) it was handed back to France.

Meanwhile, in the valley of the St. Lawrence the French had been building up a vast though scantily peopled dominion.

Champlain had ascended the St. Lawrence in 1603, as far as the Island of Montreal, where he found the Indian town of Hochelaga, discovered by Cartier, to have vanished. After assisting in the first settlement of Acadia, Champlain was dispatched from France with two vessels to form a colony on the St. Lawrence. The expedition arrived in July, 1608, off the promontory of Quebec, where buildings were erected and a settlement made. From then till his death, in 1635, Champlain guided the destinies of this little colony, which in the latter year only numbered about 200 persons.

One of his earliest and most important actions was to ally himself with the Algonquin and Huron Indians of Canada against the Iroquois. The latter were a loose confederation of five (afterwards six) tribes settled in a line of villages extending from the Genesee, which runs northward into Lake Ontario to the Mohawk River, a tributary of the Hudson. Occupying the district south and east of Lake Ontario they dominated that highway to the west, while by descending the Mohawk River they possessed in Lake George, Lake Champlain, and the Richelieu River an easy and expeditious route to the St. Lawrence. Though small in numbers compared with the Algonquins and Hurons—for their fighting men never exceeded about four thousand—their strategic position, their effective organisation, and their fighting qualities enabled the Iroquois long to dominate the upper St. Lawrence and the shores of Lake Ontario.



Champlain established a small settlement at Three Rivers in addition to Quebec, and explored Lakes Ontario and Huron. Jesuit missionaries were introduced in 1625. In 1627 Canada was placed by Richelieu in the hands of a French Company, called the Company of the One Hundred Associates, which received a perpetual monopoly of the Fur Trade and the control of all other commerce for 16 years. The Company sent out a number of colonists, but by a fatal mistake its patent prohibited the entry of all who were not Roman Catholics and consequently excluded the Huguenots, who might otherwise have been the backbone of Canada, as the Puritans were of the English Colonies. In 1629 Quebec fell an easy capture to David Kirke with three English ships, and it was not restored to France till 1632.

From 1642, when Montreal was founded, to 1667, the French and their Indian allies were almost constantly at war with the Iroquois. Jesuit missionaries were to be found scattered far and wide among the Indians, making many converts. In 1663 the Company of One Hundred Associates was dissolved, and for the next hundred years Canada was governed despotically by the French Crown. Under the King all power centred in the governor, the intendant, and the sovereign council. The governor—usually a soldier—was the chief executive officer; the intendant controlled the finances and held legislative and judicial powers. The council was at once a legislature and a high court of justice. It consisted of the governor, the intendant, the bishop, and five (afterwards seven) other councillors who were appointed by the King and held office for life.

For 20 years after 1667 there was peace between the Iroquois and the French, and during these years the latter explored the great lakes and discovered the Mississippi and its tributaries. A mission was founded in 1671 by the Jesuit Father Marquette at Michillimackinac on the north side of the strait which connects Lakes Michigan and Huron and not far from the Sault Ste. Marie, and a settlement soon grew up in this position from which three great lakes were practically commanded. In 1673 Father Marquette, with Jolliet, a Canadian trader, started from Michillimackinac and proceeding up the Fox River, reached the Winconsin River and sailed down it to the Mississippi. They continued down the latter river past the mouths of the Missouri, Illinois, and Ohio, to the mouth of the Arkansas. There they turned back, and proceeding up the Illinois, reached the southern extremity of Lake Michigan. The navigation of the Mississippi was completed in 1682 by La Salle, who proceeded from Lake Michigan down the Illinois and the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico and back again.

These enterprising voyages were encouraged by Frontenac, who was governor at Quebec from 1672 to 1682 and again from

1689 to his death in 1698. Frontenac shares with Champlain and Montcalm the chief place in the history of French Canada and did more than any other man to establish and extend the dominion of France in North America.

In 1687 hostilities recommenced between the French and the Iroquois, and war between the French and the English followed in 1689. In 1690 the French successfully raided New England and New York, while the English retaliated by capturing Port Royal and attacking Quebec—this time in vain. The war between England and France ended for the time in 1697, when by the treaty of Ryswick each side gave up the places it had captured; and in 1701 a peace was made between the French and the Iroquois which marks the decline of that fierce confederation.

Peace did not, however, last long, for in 1702 commenced the war of the Spanish Succession. England made her main efforts in Flanders, and the war in North America was mainly confined to minor raids in which the English were the less successful. In 1710 however Port Royal was once more—and this time finally—taken by the English who by its capture became masters of all Acadia.

It was however no longer only to the south that the French Canadians had to look for their English foes. The Hudson Bay Company had been formed in 1670, Prince Rupert being the first governor. Roughly fortified trading stations were established on the shores of Hudson Bay, and for some years were not molested by the French. From 1682 till the Peace of Ryswick however, the stations were alternately captured by the French and re-captured by the English. The Treaty of Ryswick placed all these stations, except Albany, under the French, who held them till the Treaty of Utrecht.

By that Treaty (1713), the French gave up Acadia, their settlements in Newfoundland, and their hold on Hudson Bay.

The thirty years of peace between England and France, which ended in 1744, enabled the French to consolidate their strength. For some time they incited the Indians to raid the English settlements of Nova Scotia and New England, but in 1726 the Indians made peace. Displaced from Acadia and Newfoundland, the French endeavoured to secure control over the mouth of the St. Lawrence by strongly fortifying Louisbourg on the east coast of Cape Breton Island, which they still retained, while on Lake Champlain at Crown Point a fort was erected.

The war of the Austrian Succession, which lasted from 1744 to 1748, was mainly remarkable, as far as America was concerned, by the brilliant capture of Louisbourg by about 4,000 New Englanders acting in conjunction with a small English

fleet. Otherwise little was effected, and the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle gave back Louisbourg and Cape Breton Island to France in exchange for Madras.

The fifteen years between the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, and the Peace of Paris in 1763, by which the French finally lost Canada, are perhaps the most interesting of Canadian history. They saw a deliberate attempt on the part of the French to shut in the English colonies by a chain of fortified posts from advancing westward of the Alleghanies, while endeavour was made to defend the two gateways of Canada by strengthening the French position in Cape Breton Island and what is now New Brunswick and by building Fort Ticonderoga on Lake George. By 1755 the French dominion was complete from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico, so far as a line of widely separated posts and settlements could make it. But the French line was perilously frail. When France and England met for their great struggle for dominion in North America, the thirteen English colonies had reached a population of nearly  $1\frac{1}{4}$  millions, while Canada and Louisiana together did not contain 80,000 inhabitants; and the disproportion in population was at least equalled by the disproportion in wealth and material resources.

Since the Peace of Utrecht, the French had steadily endeavoured to undermine the English hold on Nova Scotia. They incited the Indians to attack the English settlers, and tried by religious methods to induce the French Acadians to migrate to Canada, or to render disaffected those who remained. At last England set to work to introduce an English population. Settlers, largely soldiers, were sent out from England by the Government, and in 1749 Halifax was founded. The dangerous position of Nova Scotia between Cape Breton Island and Canada finally led the Government of the colony to decide that the French Acadians, whose loyalty to England it seemed useless to strive to secure, must be removed from a position where their presence continually endangered the English hold on Nova Scotia and the peace and security of the English settlers. In 1755, just as war was breaking out afresh, the bulk of the Acadian population was accordingly deported from Nova Scotia and distributed among the other English colonies.

The year 1755 saw fighting begin in Nova Scotia, in the valley of the Ohio, and around Lake George. In the first and last the English met with some success; but in his march with two English regiments against Fort Duquesne on the Ohio, General Braddock was ambushed, defeated, and mortally wounded, and the frontiers of Virginia and Pennsylvania were harried by Indians.

In 1756 war was formally declared between France and England, and in that year, and in 1757, the French had

decidedly the better of the struggle. General Montcalm captured Oswego, which from its position on the southern shore of Lake Ontario, had hitherto covered from French attack the territory of England's only Indian allies, the Iroquois, and had served to attract much of the Indian trade in furs from the west. In 1757 an expedition by a powerful force against Louisbourg was a complete failure, and Montcalm captured Fort William Henry at the southern extremity of Lake George.

At the end of 1757 the English had been beaten everywhere except in Nova Scotia. But though successful, the French in Canada were in great straits. Food and money were alike scarce; and while France was too much occupied in the European war to send assistance to her colony on the St. Lawrence, England on Pitt's accession to power began to make vigorous efforts to crush Canada once for all. Twenty thousand regular troops were poured into North America, and regiments were raised in the colonies. In 1758 Louisbourg was taken by the English forces after a six weeks' siege, Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick were reduced, and though Montcalm repulsed Abercromby in an attack on Ticonderoga with a loss of nearly 2,000 men, the concentration round Lake Champlain of the scanty French forces allowed the English to capture Fort Frontenac at the outlet of Lake Ontario and to drive the French from the Ohio Valley.

In 1759 an English fleet, with 9,000 troops, under the command of Wolfe, sailed up the St. Lawrence and besieged Quebec. Severely bombarded from the opposite side of the river, Quebec held out for eleven weeks, but at last Wolfe was able to land part of his army on the Heights of Abraham above the city. Here he was attacked by Montcalm, and the English gained a complete victory. Both leaders fell in the battle, and Quebec surrendered to the English.

In the west, Oswego was rebuilt and Fort Niagara taken by the English. The French were driven from Lakes Erie and Ontario; while in the centre they were forced to abandon Ticonderoga and Crown Point and to retreat to the northern outlet of Lake Champlain.

The next year the French from Montreal tried to recover Quebec. Another battle was fought on the Heights of Abraham, and this time the English forces were defeated and driven back into the city. The siege was however soon raised by the arrival of a British fleet and the French retreated to Montreal, against which the English then proceeded to make a threefold attack. One force moved up the St. Lawrence from Quebec, another took the line of the Richelieu River, while Amherst with the main army proceeded from Oswego down the St. Lawrence. All three



forces arrived in due time before Montreal, and with only about 2,400 men to oppose to 17,000 English, the French had no alternative but to surrender. The terms of capitulation were signed on 8th September, 1760, and the whole of Canada thus passed into the possession of Great Britain, the cession being confirmed by the Treaty of Paris in 1763, when Louisiana was ceded to Spain in exchange for Florida, which was given up to England.

For some years after its conquest by England, Canada, with a population of about 70,000, remained under military rule and was divided for administrative purposes into three districts—Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal.

The first trouble of the new administration was an Indian rising, which broke out in 1763, and is known as Pontiac's War, from the name of the Indian leader. Algonquins and Hurons with the Senecas (one of the Iroquois tribes), incited by French emissaries and dissatisfied at their treatment by the English, rose and by surprise or treachery destroyed most of the English posts on and to the south of the Great Lakes. The frontiers of Pennsylvania and Virginia were raided and laid waste, and it was finally by a force from those colonies, which penetrated to the heart of the Indian country, that the war was brought to an end in 1765.

In 1764 Canada was placed under a single government and provision was made for the calling of a General Assembly, but the French Canadians being Roman Catholics objected to take the Test Oath, and no assembly ever met. In 1774 Parliament passed the Quebec Act, which extended the boundaries of the Province of Quebec from Labrador and the watershed of Hudson Bay to the Mississippi and Ohio, and entrusted its government to a governor and a legislative council nominated by the Crown. French law was retained in civil matters, while the law of England was to prevail in criminal cases. Roman Catholics were relieved from civil disabilities and their clergy were to retain their tithes.

The year 1764, which saw the establishment of civil government in Canada, saw also the first step in the long struggle between Great Britain and the Thirteen Colonies. In that year Grenville took measures to enforce the Acts relating to colonial trade which had been systematically ignored by those colonies, and in 1765 the Stamp Act was passed. The population of the English colonies in 1764 was over  $1\frac{1}{2}$  millions and was steadily increasing. Destitution was practically unknown, and the small farmers, artisans, and merchants enjoyed a degree of comfort then unknown to similar classes in Europe. In the southern colonies, most of the manual labour was done by negro slaves by convicts sent out from England, or by indentured immigrants, and the whites were in a minority. Self-govern-

ment was strongly developed, especially in New England, the franchise was broad, and education was widely spread and cheap. So long as the colonies observed the Acts relating to trade, the Home Government was, to a very large degree, content to leave them alone. But the Seven Years' War had been costly to England and had left her saddled with a largely increased debt, a considerable proportion of which had been incurred in relieving the American colonies of their French and Indian enemies. Financial difficulties thus led to the attempt of the Home Government to induce the colonies, for whose benefit so much had been done, to make some contribution towards the cost of those efforts more direct than that which England derived from the partial monopoly of their oversea trade.

Grenville's policy met with strong opposition in America, and in 1766 the Rockingham Ministry repealed the obnoxious Stamp Act. With the fall of that Ministry in the same year the attempt to tax the colonies was however resumed; and the struggle between the colonies and a weak but obstinate ministry went on till it resulted in 1775 in a war in which finally Great Britain had as opponents not only the revolted colonies but France, Spain, and Holland.

This war greatly affected Canada. In the first place its territories were invaded by the forces of the revolted colonies; but the invasion, though—owing to the entire absence of regular troops in Canada—it was at first successful and Montreal was occupied by the rebels, finally resulted in failure, while the attempt to seduce the Canadians from their allegiance to Great Britain met with little success. The Congress troops were repulsed from Quebec and they soon evacuated Canada. The valleys of the Ohio and Illinois, however, fell into the possession of the United States troops, and, by the Treaty of Versailles (January, 1783), the boundaries of the new republic were extended to the Mississippi and the Great Lakes.

Another important result of the war was the settling in Canada of many thousands of loyalists from the United States. Especially in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and the Southern states, a considerable proportion of the inhabitants remained loyal to the British connexion, and quitting their homes settled in Upper Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, where they received grants of land and money from the British Government. These United Empire loyalists, as they were called, laid the foundations of the present flourishing province of Ontario, and throughout Canada's subsequent history they and their descendants have exercised a very considerable influence in its politics and intellectual development. The Iroquois tribe of the Mohawks, faithful in their

friendship to England, also emigrated to Canada, where their descendants still live.

In 1791, Canada with a population of about 160,000, was divided by Act of Parliament into two provinces, Upper Canada (now Ontario) and Lower Canada (now Quebec). Each province was given a legislative council or upper house nominated by the Crown, and a house of assembly elected by the inhabitants on a limited franchise.

In 1769 Prince Edward Island, and in 1784 New Brunswick and Cape Breton Island had been separated from Nova Scotia and erected into separate colonies—all of which had by 1791 received representative institutions.

During the period between 1791 and 1812 Canada, especially Upper Canada, was steadily developing; roads were built, settlements established, and schools founded. In Lower Canada, and to a much less extent in the other provinces, a struggle for supremacy went on between the House of Assembly and the Executive.

In 1812 the outbreak of war between Great Britain and the United States led to another invasion of Canada, but though generally outnumbered the English troops and Canadian militia repeatedly defeated the United States forces. When the war ended in 1814 the American attack on Canada had entirely failed. The only place in Canada which their forces held was the village of Amherstburg on the Canadian side of the Detroit River, while Great Britain occupied the greater part of the seaboard of Maine and held the fort at Michillimackinac, the key of the Upper Lakes.

After the war Canada grew apace. Emigration from the United Kingdom was large during the period of industrial depression and social disturbance which followed Waterloo, and many of the emigrants found their way to Canada. Scotch Highlanders flocked to Nova Scotia. The waterways of the west were gradually opened up to steam navigation and canals were built to avoid the rapids which impeded free passage. The Hudson Bay Company and its rival, the North West Company, a Canadian association, spread their employes over the plains, lakes, and rivers of the Great North-West in search of furs, and in 1812 a settlement of Scotch and Irish was made on the banks of the Red River by Lord Selkirk, a large proprietor of Hudson Bay stock.

During this time of material advancement the conflict between the executive and legislative authorities was growing in intensity, and in 1837 it culminated in rebellion in both Upper and Lower Canada. The causes of the difficulties were partly inherent in the colonial constitutions, and partly due to the particular racial and other circumstances of Canada. The rapid increase of English settlers caused the French Canadians in

Lower Canada to become increasingly determined to preserve their ascendancy, while in Upper Canada the struggle was partly due to the fact that official position and influence were to a great extent monopolised by a small section of the population, and partly to the dislike by Nonconformists of the grant of large tracts of land under the Act of 1791 for the exclusive benefit of the Anglican clergy.

The rebels in Lower Canada were headed by Louis Papineau, but, few in numbers, they were quickly dispersed by the regular troops, while the rising in Upper Canada was still more insignificant. In both cases the leaders and some of their followers took refuge in the United States, and from thence, without interference at first by the Republican Government, they endeavoured for some time to harass the British authorities.

The immediate result of the outbreak was the suspension of the constitution of Lower Canada. Lord Durham, a well-known figure in English politics, was sent out to Canada in 1838 as Governor-General and High Commissioner. He soon incurred severe censures for sentencing without trial certain rebels in custody to transportation to Bermuda, and subjecting them and certain others who had fled the country to death if they returned to Canada ; and attacks in Parliament on his conduct forced the Ministry to recall him. His report, however, pointed out the true solution of the difficulties which had resulted in the rebellion. It attributed them to racial feeling and constitutional grievances and advocated the grant of responsible government, the union of Quebec and Ontario under one legislature, elective bodies for local administration, and the repeal of the legislation as to clergy reserves. It further recommended that in the Act uniting the two Canadas provision should be made by which the other North American colonies could, on the application of their legislatures and with the consent of Canada, be admitted into the Canadian union.

Based upon this great report, to which is largely due the constitutional system of the British self-governing colonies of to-day, an Act was passed in 1840 by which the two provinces were re-united with a partly-elected legislative council and a wholly-elected house of assembly consisting of an equal number of members from each province. This constitution came into force in 1841 when municipal institutions were also established. For some years responsible government as at present understood hardly obtained, but when Lord Elgin became Governor-General in 1847 the new system received a fair trial. The question of the clergy reserves was settled in 1854 by their surrender to the local authorities for educational and social purposes—vested interests being respected. The year 1854 also saw the abolition in Lower Canada of the old seigniorial tenures.



The grant of responsible government in Canada proper was within a few years followed by the establishment of the same system in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island.

The quarter of a century which elapsed between 1841 and the formation of the Dominion of Canada saw rapid material progress in British North America. Ontario especially grew and flourished—its population in 1861 being 1,396,091, against the 1,111,566 of Lower Canada. Railways were built and regular steamship communication with Great Britain was established. The increase of population led to demands from Ontario for increased representation in the Canadian Legislature—demands which were steadily resisted by the French Canadians. As the struggle proceeded it became evident that the most satisfactory solution would be the separation of the two provinces, and their reunion as members of a federation into which the other British colonies in North America should be admitted. Early in the sixties this was generally recognised, and in July 1867 in accordance with the British North America Act, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, were formed into the federal Dominion of Canada.

The Hudson Bay Company, which in 1821 had absorbed the North-West Company, had fixed its headquarters at the Red River Settlement—now Winnipeg—at which had grown up a population composed partly of British, partly of French Canadians, but mainly of Indian half-breeds who lived almost entirely on the fur trade.

The Oregon Treaty of 1846 had fixed the 49th parallel as the boundary between British and United States territory in the west, the whole of Vancouver Island being however assigned to Great Britain. In 1849 the Island became a Crown colony. The discoveries of gold in California (1848) and Australia (1851) were followed in 1858 by a similar discovery in British Columbia, and the large immigration which resulted led to its constitution as a Crown colony. In 1866 the two colonies were united, and in 1871 the enlarged British Columbia entered the Dominion of Canada and received responsible government.

The growing immigration to the Winnipeg district led in 1869 to the purchase by the Canadian Government of the territorial rights of the Hudson Bay Company over the North-West territories. A somewhat premature attempt of the Dominion Government to take possession of their new territories caused the half-breeds, led by Riel, to rise in insurrection. The insurgents established a provisional government of their own, but they submitted without resistance on the arrival of a force of regulars and volunteers led by Sir Garnet Wolseley.

In 1870 the Red River district was given responsible government and admitted to the Dominion as the province of Manitoba.

In 1873 Prince Edward Island entered the Federation.

In 1875, the North-West territories outside the province of Manitoba and the district of Keewatin (which in the following year came under the government of the Lieut-Governor of Manitoba) were placed under a separate government, and in 1880, all the British North American possessions, except Newfoundland, were transferred to the Dominion, to which was also added the Arctic Archipelago.

In 1882, the districts to the west of Keewatin and Manitoba and south of the 60th parallel were formed into four provisional districts:—Assiniboia to the west and Saskatchewan to the north-west of Manitoba, Alberta to the west of those two districts, and Athabasca to the north of Alberta and Saskatchewan; and in 1898, in consequence of the immigration due to the gold discoveries, the Yukon district to the north of British Columbia was constituted a separate territory.

Finally in September 1905 the districts of Alberta, Assiniboia, Saskatchewan and Athabasca were formed into the two provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan and were admitted as partners in the Dominion.

Throughout the years of which the above is a historical sketch the work of overcoming natural difficulties has gone steadily on. The early pioneers found a land rich in soil and timber, but there was an enormous amount of work to be done—the clearing of fields, the building of bridges over great rivers, the construction of canals to complete the waterways, and eventually the making of railways which to a great extent traversed rocky and wild country. Perhaps nowhere else in the world have equal difficulties been attacked with so much courage and success. At the time of the creation of the Dominion in 1867 the population was only about 3,400,000, but the union of the maritime provinces with Ontario and Quebec by the Inter-Colonial Railway was rapidly accomplished, and in 1886 was completed the Canadian Pacific Railway, uniting the Atlantic and the Pacific. The canals are hardly less remarkable. They contribute to give a water passage, nowhere less than 14 feet deep, from Lake Superior to the sea.

The Dominion is now exceedingly prosperous, and another trans-continental railway, the Grand Trunk Pacific, running about 100 miles north of the present line, is about to be undertaken.

Another trunk line, the Canadian Northern, which starts from Port Arthur on Lake Superior, is being actively pushed on through Saskatchewan, and may eventually reach Hudson Bay.

The backbone of their prosperity and progress is agriculture, in which 45 per cent. of the population is engaged, and the main developments that are looked for will be in the wheat-fields of the North-West. In Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta there are about 200,000,000 acres available for cultivation, and of these only 5,750,000 have yet been touched. The winter is colder here than in the same latitudes of Europe, but the freezing of the land locks up the valuable nitrates in the soil, which otherwise would be washed out. Partly from this cause the virgin soil of Manitoba and the North-West is remarkably rich in the constituents of plant-food. Emigrants to the number of some 150,000 a year, a large proportion being farmers from the United States, are pouring into these territories, which promise to claim the title of "The Granary of the Empire," and to justify the boast that the twentieth century is to be with Canada. The Government grants 160 acres to the "homesteader" for nothing. Wages in these parts are high, and work plentiful.

*Constitution.*—The executive government is vested in the Crown, and is exercised by a Governor-General appointed by the King, assisted by a Privy Council chosen and summoned by himself. The Cabinet, as in England, is a committee of the Privy Council, formed of the principal members of the Government. The seat of Government is Ottawa, in Ontario.

The supreme legislative power is vested in a Parliament, consisting of the King, a Senate, and a House of Commons. The Senate consists of 87 members nominated for life by the Governor-General, and so chosen that 24 belong to Ontario, 24 to Quebec, and the remainder to the other provinces of the Dominion. The qualification for Senator is the possession of property worth \$4,000, age of thirty years, and residence within the province for which he is appointed. The House of Commons consisted originally of 181 elected members, which number has been increased by additions on the accession of new provinces, and by the increase in population, and is now 214; 86 representing Ontario, 65 Quebec, 18 Nova Scotia, 13 New Brunswick, 10 Manitoba, 7 British Columbia, 4 Prince Edward Island, 10 the new provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta, and 1 the Yukon Territory. The basis on which the number of members allotted to each province is regulated, is that Quebec shall always have 65, and the other provinces a proportional number according to their population at each decennial census. There is no property qualification. Each member of the Senate receives \$2,500 per annum, and each member of the Commons a maximum of \$2,500 per session with deductions for non-attendance. A Parliament lasts five years

if not sooner dissolved. Election is by ballot, and the franchise is regulated by the several provincial legislatures, which also regulate the polling divisions and the voters' lists.

For each province there is a Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the Governor-General, and holding office during pleasure, but not removable within five years of appointment, except for cause assigned. He receives a salary fixed and provided by the Dominion Parliament, and is assisted by an executive council usually composed of the chief provincial officials who possess the confidence of the provincial assembly.

Each province has a "legislative assembly," and in Quebec and Nova Scotia there is also a "legislative council," forming a second chamber. The provincial legislatures possess the power of altering their constitutions. The territory not comprised within any province (such as the North-east territory and the Arctic Islands) is very thinly inhabited, and is administered by the Minister of the Interior at Ottawa.

The Dominion Parliament has exclusive legislative power in all matters except those specifically delegated by the constitution to the provincial legislatures, and the Canadian Constitution is in this respect the reverse of those of the United States and the Australian Commonwealth. Among such general matters may be named public finance, trade regulation, postal service, currency, coinage, banking and navigation matters, defence, the law relating to crimes, bankruptcy, copyright, patents, marriage and divorce, naturalisation, and native (Indian) affairs.

The powers of the provincial legislatures are confined to certain specified subjects, of which the chief are the alteration of their own constitutions, direct taxation within the province and provincial loans, the management of provincial public lands, and of provincial and municipal offices, hospitals, gaols, &c., licences, local works, and the general civil law and procedure. With regard to education, they have full powers, subject only to certain provisions to secure protection to religious minorities. In agricultural, quarantine, and immigration matters, they possess concurrent legislative powers with the Dominion Parliament.

Bills passed by the provincial legislature require the assent of the Lieutenant-Governor, and may be disallowed within a year by the Governor-General. Those passed by the Dominion Parliament require the assent of the Governor-General, and may be disallowed within two years by the King.

Provision was made in the Act constituting the Dominion for the admission into it of any of the other British possessions on the continent of North America, and they have all been since admitted except Newfoundland.



*Productions and Industries.*—The main industry of the Dominion is agriculture, an enormous quantity of cereals, and dairy produce, being raised and exported. The wheat produced annually, 80,000,000 to 100,000,000 bushels, represents about half the whole supply required by the United Kingdom. The fisheries of the maritime provinces are very extensive, and large quantities of dried, pickled, and canned fish and lobsters are exported. About 87,000 persons are employed in connection with the fisheries. The lumber and fur trades are also important. Manufactures have been very considerably developed, the number of employes at establishments of over five hands, growing from 269,093 in 1891, to 306,694 in 1901, and the value of products from \$359,000,000 to \$452,000,000. The annual product of all mechanical industries was about \$570,000,000. The output of wood-pulp for 1903 was valued at nearly \$5,250,000.

Canada is rich in minerals, though, except in Nova Scotia and British Columbia, they are not very extensively worked at present. Gold is largely worked in British Columbia, the Yukon Territory, and Nova Scotia—the total value produced in 1904 being \$16,400,000, of which over \$10,000,000 came from the Yukon district and about \$5,750,000 from British Columbia. Coal is found in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, in Manitoba, along the base of the Rocky Mountains, and in British Columbia. Over  $7\frac{1}{2}$  million tons were mined in 1903, of which about 5,653,000 tons came from Nova Scotia. Anthracite is found in British Columbia, in the Rocky Mountains, and in Queen Charlotte Island. The coal in Manitoba is mainly lignites. Iron is widespread, especially in Nova Scotia, but is not yet much worked. Large quantities of copper, lead, silver, and nickel are mined, while about one million dollars' worth of petroleum is produced annually—mostly from Ontario, though it seems probable that richer finds of oil will be discovered in the North-West territories.

Shipbuilding is an important industry, and besides ships, the principal manufactured articles exported are furniture and other manufactures of wood, leather, agricultural implements, dye-stuffs, spirits, and paper. The principal imports are textiles, coal, hardware, tea, sugar, raw cotton, leather goods, and tobacco.

## ONTARIO.

Ontario (formerly called Upper Quebec) lies between Quebec and Manitoba, and is about four times as large as England and Wales. It is bounded on the south mainly by the Great Lakes. It is the most important province of Canada with the largest population (about 2,180,000 in 1901), and is the main centre of

the manufacturing industry. Its capital is Ottawa, which is also the seat of the Government of the Dominion. The land is very fertile, and produces all cereals and wheat crops in abundance; fruit grows luxuriantly, and maize, grapes, melons, peaches, and tomatoes come to maturity in the open air. Next to British Columbia, its mineral production is the largest in Canada. Copper, nickel, iron, zinc, petroleum, phosphates and gold, are worked.

Ontario sends 24 members to the Senate, and 86 members to the House of Commons of the Dominion.

There is a provincial legislative assembly of 98 members elected by manhood suffrage.

#### QUEBEC.

Quebec (formerly Lower Canada) is about six times the area of England and Wales, and comprises the valley of the St. Lawrence east of the Ottawa river, and the country to the north as far as the Labrador Peninsula. The tract to the south of the St. Lawrence is narrow but fertile and is bounded by the States of New York and Maine and by New Brunswick. The population is nearly 1,650,000, of whom about 80 per cent. are of French extraction. French is the language usually spoken. Agriculture, the timber trade, and the fisheries, are the main industries.

Quebec sends 24 representatives to the Dominion Senate, and 65 to the House of Commons.

There is a legislative assembly of 74 members, elected by manhood suffrage, as well as an upper house or legislative council of 24 members, nominated for life by the provincial executive.

#### NOVA SCOTIA.

Nova Scotia is an undulating [and well-watered peninsula connected with New Brunswick by an isthmus about 14 miles wide; its length is about 300 miles, and its breadth about 100 at its widest, with much variation. The island of Cape Breton, separated by the Gut of Canso, forms part of the province. Its area is about two-thirds that of Scotland. The population at the last census was 459,574.

Halifax is the capital (population at the last census 40,832). Its harbour is open at all seasons, and is not surpassed by any in the world, affording safe anchorage for at least 1,000 ships. There is an extensive dockyard at this city, which is the principal British naval station in North America. The charge of the station has recently been taken over by the Canadian Government.

There are many other fine harbours which are able to afford shelter to the largest vessels. There is no point in the province distant over thirty miles from a good seaport.

Extensive iron and steel works are established at Sydney, and this town is developing very rapidly.

Minerals of almost all kinds abound. Those worked include coal, iron ore, gold, limestone and gypsum. There are large deposits of copper and other minerals which have not, as yet, been commercially mined.

The greater portion of the inhabitants are engaged in agriculture and the growth of fruit, for which the province is well adapted. Apples of different varieties and of very superior quality are extensively grown and exported to England and other parts of Europe.

A large quantity of wood pulp is manufactured and exported, principally to England; the conditions prevailing are well suited for this industry, which is rapidly growing.

The fisheries of the province are very valuable. The value of the catch of fish in 1903 was about \$7,841,000. There are many establishments for canning and preserving lobsters and drying and preserving other fish.

The timber trade is carried on to a considerable extent; England is the chief customer, but shipments are also made to other parts of Europe. Spruce and pine are the principal kinds of timber manufactured and exported.

The building of wooden vessels is largely carried on.

The climate is remarkably healthy and more temperate than that of any other part of the Dominion.

Nova Scotia is represented in the Dominion Parliament by 12 members in the Senate and 18 Members in the House of Commons.

The local government is administered by a Lieut.-Governor, advised by an Executive Council of nine members (three of whom are departmental heads), responsible to the legislature, which consists of a legislative council of 21 members appointed by the Governor for life and a House of Assembly of 38 representatives elected every five years.

## NEW BRUNSWICK.

New Brunswick is situated between Maine and the Gulf of St. Lawrence; its area is 27,177 square miles, or nearly as large as Scotland. It is connected with Nova Scotia by a low isthmus. The population in 1901 was 331,120.

Coal is found, but is not largely worked. Recent discoveries of oil have been made; copper and gypsum exist in large quantities. There are also several salt springs, from which excellent

salt is manufactured, and antimony, iron and manganese have been found in considerable quantities. A great portion of the country is covered by dense forests of fine timber, the cutting and working of which furnishes remunerative employment to many. Wheat, Indian corn, barley, buckwheat, and oats, are the principal cereals raised. Apples and plums of excellent quality are largely grown, also strawberries, raspberries, and other small fruits. The fisheries are extensive, both sea and river. Fredericton, 56 miles inland, is the capital, but St. John, on the mouth of the river of the same name, is the leading commercial centre (population 40,711).

New Brunswick is represented in the Canadian Senate by 10 members, and sends 13 members to the House of Commons. There is now no legislative council. The legislative assembly consists of 48 members, elected under a liberal franchise.

#### PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

This island, which is about the size of Norfolk, lies within the bay formed by the shores of Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick.

The population at the last census was 103,258.

The climate is milder than in the neighbouring provinces, and is considered very healthy. The island is generally well wooded and watered, and contains good pasturage.

Besides the usual domestic industries of an agricultural people, there are numerous factories, tanneries, foundries, saw and woollen mills, and establishments for canning and preserving lobsters, fish, &c. Many cheese and butter factories have lately been established.

The waters adjoining comprise by far the most valuable section of the fishing grounds of America, and are very largely resorted to.

The chief towns are Charlottetown (12,080), and Summerside (3,000.)

The island is represented in the Dominion Parliament by four members in the Senate and four in the House of Commons.

There is a legislative assembly of 30 elected members.

#### BRITISH COLUMBIA.

British Columbia is the western maritime province of the Dominion. It is bounded on the north by the 60th parallel which separates it from the Yukon Territory, on the east by



the 120th meridian as far south as the Rocky Mountains, and thence by the summits of that range. On the south it is bounded by the United States, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean and Alaska. The average breadth is about 450 miles, and the length of coast line about 1,000 miles. The area (including Vancouver and Queen Charlotte Island) is about 383,000 square miles, four and a-quarter times as large as Great Britain. The population is about 180,000, of whom 29,000 are Indians, 15,000 Chinese, and 4,600 Japanese.

The coast region has a climate much resembling that of the South of England, except that the summers are drier. The warm tropical waters of the Japan current striking the coast give to Vancouver Island and the coast generally a mild and agreeable climate; there is little frost or snow, and there is a difference of at least 10 degrees of latitude in favour of places on the coast as compared with corresponding positions on the Atlantic coast. The interior is subject to greater extremes, both of heat and cold, but nowhere are the extremes as great as on the east of the Rocky Mountains; the climate is for the most part drier and the snowfall consequently less. The most important river is the Fraser, which drains an area nearly as large as Italy, and is rich in salmon, sturgeon and trout. The greater part of the province is filled by the Rocky Mountains and the Selkirk Range on the east, and the Cascade Range on the west. About 80 per cent. of the province is covered with forests or woodlands.

The capital of the province is Victoria (23,688), on the south east extremity of Vancouver Island, a mountainous and well wooded island, larger than Holland, and containing rich coal deposits.

British Columbia is rich in minerals. Besides coal, the minerals worked include gold, first found in 1858, and of recent years extensively mined—the annual production since 1900 having averaged about \$5,750,000—silver, lead, copper and zinc. The total value of the minerals produced annually in the province exceeds that of any other part of the Dominion.

The trade of the province is being rapidly developed and the exports, in spite of the small population, amount to between 15 and 20 million dollars annually. They consist of gold, silver, copper, coal, salmon, oil, timber and furs. The imports amount to over \$10,000,000 annually.

The province is represented in the Dominion Senate by three members, and in the House of Commons by six.

There is a provincial legislative assembly of 38 members, elected by manhood franchise.

## MANITOBA.

Manitoba is an almost square block of level prairie country, with an area of about 73,732 square miles, and a population in 1901 of over a quarter of a million. It lies to the west of Ontario, between that province and Saskatchewan, and is the centre of the wheat-growing area of Canada. The soil is a deep, rich black loam, which produces crop after crop of the hardest and best wheat without manure. The principal agricultural exports are wheat, oats, beef, cattle and dairy products. In 1904 there were over 50,000 farmers in the province, who had in crop over 3,750,000 acres, of which over 2,400,000 acres were under wheat. The principal city is Winnipeg, which has grown since 1870 from a small village to a town of over 80,000 inhabitants. There is at present little mining or manufacturing in Manitoba, though lignites are found.

The mean temperature is low (33° F. at Winnipeg) and the range great, but the climate is bracing and healthy.

Manitoba is represented by four members in the Dominion Senate, and by 10 members in the House of Commons.

There is a provincial legislative assembly of 40 members elected by manhood suffrage.

## KEEWATIN.

The district of Keewatin lies to the north of Manitoba and Ontario, and comprises all the country between the great Mackenzie Basin and Hudson Bay. Its area is over five times that of Great Britain. It was placed in 1876 under the government of the Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba, and has a population of about 5,000 whites and Indians.

## SASKATCHEWAN, ALBERTA AND THE NORTH-WEST TERRITORIES.

The vast tract extending from the Rocky Mountains to Ontario and Hudson Bay and from the United States border to the Arctic Ocean was annexed to the Dominion of Canada in 1870, when Manitoba was carved out of it and erected into a separate province. In 1875 all this area, except Manitoba and the district of Keewatin was placed under a separate government distinct from that of Manitoba. The organization and development—material and constitutional—of this vast country progressed until in September 1905 the whole of the southern and more settled half was divided into two

provinces, which, under the names of Saskatchewan and Alberta, were admitted as provinces of the Dominion, returning four Senators each and 10 representatives in all to the House of Commons.

Each province possesses a local legislative assembly of 25 members.

The seat of Government of Saskatchewan is at Regina, and of Alberta at Edmonton. Saskatchewan is quadrangular in shape, and is bounded on the north by the 60th parallel, on the east by the 101st meridian, which separates it from Keewatin and Manitoba, on the south by the United States, and on the west by the 110th meridian, which separates it from Alberta. Its area is 250,650 square miles, and its population has been largely increased during the last five years by emigration from the United Kingdom and the United States. The province is devoted to agriculture and dairying; wheat, barley, oats, flax and potatoes are extensively grown.

Alberta is bounded on the north by the 60th parallel, on the east by Saskatchewan, on the south by the United States, and on the west by British Columbia. Its area is 253,540 square miles, or a little larger than Saskatchewan. The southern half of the province contains the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains, the northern consists of the basins of the Peace and Athabasca Rivers. The soil is fertile, and the climate somewhat warmer than further east, and in the south-western districts cattle and horses can remain out without shelter during the winter. It is thus well adapted for stock raising, and this industry is largely carried on, together with agriculture and some coal mining.

The Yukon Territory (area about 197,000 square miles) is triangular in shape. It is bounded on the west by Alaska, on the south by British Columbia, and on the north-east by the Mackenzie District. Alluvial gold was discovered in large quantities in 1897 on the Klondike and other rivers, and the production rose rapidly till, in 1900, it reached over \$22,250,000, since when it has declined. The district was made a separate territory in 1898, and sends one representative to the Dominion House of Commons.

Since the creation of the two new provinces, the North-West territories consist of the following districts: Ungava, north of Quebec, and comprising the Peninsula of Labrador; Mackenzie, between Saskatchewan Alberta, British Columbia, Yukon and Keewatin; and Franklin, which comprises the Arctic Islands.

The territories, which are scantily inhabited, are governed by a commissioner appointed by the Governor-General, with a council of not more than four nominated members.

## NEWFOUNDLAND.

*General Description.*—Newfoundland is an irregular shaped island situated on the north-east side of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and about 1,650 miles distant from Ireland. Its greatest length from north to south is 350 miles, and its average breadth about 130; its area is about one-third of that of the United Kingdom.

The coast line is much indented, and the south-east part of the island is almost separated from the rest. The Long Range, a chain of low mountains with peaks rising more than 2,000 feet high, extends practically the whole length of the west side. The interior is for the most part an undulating table-land with numerous lakes and rivers, and though but scantily inhabited is in parts capable of cultivation. The island contains much fine timber and the rivers abound in salmon.

The climate is milder than that of Canada; there is an almost complete absence of spring, the summer setting in very suddenly in May.

The capital is St. John's, on the east coast, with 29,594 inhabitants. The population of Newfoundland in 1901 was about 217,000. Of these about one-third belong to the Roman Catholic religion, and a certain number of these are of French extraction.

The interior of the island teems with game. Reindeer, caribou, wolves, black bear, beaver, otter, fox, and musquash are found. Birds are numerous, and include eagles, hawks, grouse, wild ducks, snipe, and curlew.

*History.*—The island was discovered by John Cabot in 1497; it was as early as 1500 frequented by the Portuguese, Spanish and French for its fisheries. Sir Walter Raleigh and others, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, attempted to colonise this island, but were not successful. In 1623 Sir G. Calvert, afterwards Lord Baltimore, established himself in the Peninsula of Avalon, the south-east part of the island, and appointed his son governor. In 1634 a party of colonists were sent over from Ireland, and twenty years after some English colonists arrived, having emigrated by means of a Parliamentary grant.

The French, about 1620, established a station at Placentia; and for many years the French and English settlers were constantly annoying each other. At the Peace of Utrecht in 1713, subsequently ratified by the Treaty of Paris, the exclusive sovereignty of Newfoundland was acknowledged to belong to Great Britain, the French retaining the small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon off the south coast. Certain rights of



fishing and landing to dry their fish on the west coast were at the same time granted to French fishermen, and the exact extent of these rights long remained in question between the two nations.

The dispute was finally settled by the Anglo-French Convention of the 8th April 1904 in connection with other outstanding questions between the two countries. Under that convention France renounced the privileges under Art. xiii. of the Treaty of Utrecht. The arrangement should be of great benefit to the colony, since it removes an obstruction to local development, to mining and other industrial enterprises, over some two-fifths of the whole coast line.

*Industries.*—The industries of the island—fishing, agricultural, mining and lumbering—are mainly confined to the sea coast. Copper, iron pyrites, and asbestos are worked, and lead, silver coal, and gold are also found. Immense beds of hematite iron ore have been discovered at Bell Island, Conception Bay, and large quantities are being exported.

The cod fishery is the staple industry, and after this in importance rank the fisheries for seal, lobster, herring and salmon. Haddock and mackerel are now only taken occasionally. The cod appear off the coast early in May, and the fishery extends north for over 1,000 miles, including the coast of Labrador. The home consumption is about 3,000 quintals, and the export 1902-3 was 1,429,274 quintals, value \$5,633,072. The export is mainly to the Roman Catholic countries—Portugal, Spain, Brazil and Italy—and to the United Kingdom. The chief imports are flour, textiles, woollens and cottons, hardware, cutlery, salt pork, molasses, butter, and salt. These are obtained mainly from Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

*Constitution.*—Newfoundland has had a legislature since 1832, but it was the last of the old North American Colonies to receive responsible government, which was established in 1855. There is a legislative council and a house of assembly of 36 members elected by ballot under manhood suffrage. There is a property qualification for members who are paid a small salary.

The town of St. John's is administered by an elective municipal council.

#### LABRADOR.

The coast of Labrador from Hudson Strait to the Strait of Belle Isle, including the basin of the Hamilton, is included in the Colony of Newfoundland, the remainder of the Labrador peninsula forming part of Canada. The area is about

120,000 square miles (equal to that of the United Kingdom), with a coast line of some 600 miles. The outside coast line is bleak, but the shores of the bays and rivers are well wooded, in some cases densely so, the temperature of the interior is, as a rule, like that of Northern Canada. There are about 4,000 permanent inhabitants (some 1,700 Eskimo, the remainder of British descent), occupied in the fisheries and in trapping. The population is greatly increased in summer by fishermen and sportsmen, over 1,000 vessels being employed. Battle Harbour, just north of the Strait of Belle Isle, is the chief port. The Customs duties are those of Newfoundland.

*History.*—Labrador, discovered by the Norsemen and (in 1497) by Cabot, was early frequented by Basque, and subsequently by Breton fishermen. It became British on the conquest of Canada (1759).

The Atlantic coast was annexed to Newfoundland in 1763, and (except during the years 1773 to 1809, when it was temporarily re-annexed to Quebec) it has remained a dependency of that colony.

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## 2.—THE WEST INDIES.

The West Indies are a system of numerous islands stretching like stepping stones from the Peninsula of Florida, in the United States, to the mouth of the Orinoco, in South America. There are three principal divisions, viz., the Bahamas, the Greater Antilles and the Lesser Antilles. The Bahamas are the most northerly, stretching towards Florida. The Greater Antilles comprise Cuba, Hayti, Jamaica, and Porto Rico, the four largest islands in the archipelago. The Lesser Antilles extend in the form of a crescent, convex towards the east, from the mouth of the Orinoco to Porto Rico.

Of these England possesses the whole of the first group, one of the second (Jamaica), and the best part of the third. The northern portion of the Lesser Antilles are called the Leeward Islands, the southern portion the Windward Islands, but Barbados and Trinidad are administered separately. For administrative purposes the two colonies on the mainland of America—British Guiana and British Honduras—are classed with the West Indies.

Nearly all the islands are mountainous and possess good harbours, a characteristic due to volcanic growth, which distinguishes them from the low-lying and surf-surrounded islands of coral formation, so numerous on the other side of America. They are really the tops of under-sea mountain ranges running parallel to those on the mainland.

All the West Indies, except the more northerly of the Bahamas, lie within the tropics, but the heat is considerably modified by the sea-breezes and the elevation of the land. The year, as in most tropical countries, has two seasons, a dry and a wet. The dry season, which lasts from December to May, is healthy, but in the wet season fever and other diseases are common. Earthquakes and hurricanes not unfrequently occur in all the islands between August and the end of October. The dry season is exceedingly dry, and the wet season exceedingly wet; thus while the mean yearly temperature is nearly 20° higher than that of London, the rainfall is about three times the average of England.

*Population.*—The population of the British islands amounts to about 1,700,000, by far the larger portion of whom are negroes. Negroes were first brought into the West Indies about the middle of the 17th century, and from that time the

slave trade was carried on by England down to 1807, when it was declared illegal. Slavery itself under the British flag was abolished in 1834, when a sum of £20,000,000 was paid by England to the owners for the liberation.

There are in the principal colonies a considerable number of coolies from India; nearly 10,000 are conveyed yearly from Calcutta. A comparison has been drawn between this system, especially as administered in British Guiana, and the introduction of Chinese to work in the Transvaal mines; but in British Guiana the immigrant can remain in the colony when his period of indentured service on the plantations is over, and can work at any trade, or he can receive a grant of Crown land. The immigrants must be accompanied by 40 per cent. of women.

*Vegetation.*—The soil is usually fertile and the products are rich and varied, the principal being sugar, coffee, cocoa, pimento, or allspice, various dyewoods, such as logwood, fruits, and medicinal plants, such as liquorice, arrowroot, ginger, ipecacuanha.

The fruit trade, especially in Jamaica, has been greatly developed lately, partly in consequence of improved means of transport to Great Britain. The products of fruit culture are as varied as they are numerous. They embrace oranges of various kinds—bitter, sweet, and seedless, Tangerines and mandarines—custard apples (large and oval, containing a white pulp of agreeable flavour), shaddocks (a fruit little known in this country so far, resembling, but considerably larger than, the grape fruit), pineapples, bananas, grape fruit, limes, water cocoa-nuts, apples, and Avocada pears. Other products of the soil are yams, guavas, mangoes (a kidney-shaped fruit of which eighty varieties are cultivated), mangosteens, (the product of a beautiful tree, shaped like an orange), sweet potatoes, chow-chows, and vegetable marrows. The vegetable products are utilised by native talent in the making of lace bark, beautiful fruit doyleys and fans made out of pineapple pulp and very like crotchet work.

*History.*—The West Indies were the scene of the first European exploration of the New World and thenceforth became the theatre of perilous adventures, piracy, and slavery; a school of seamanship, and the cockpit of fighting races and religions. Their history is intimately connected with the contests for supremacy between the great European Powers.

The first Europeans to set foot in the West Indies were the Spaniards.

On his first voyage of discovery in 1492, Columbus landed at San Salvador—or possibly at Watling's Island—in the Bahamas, and subsequently visited Cuba and Hayti. The



following year he added to his former discoveries those of Dominica, the Leeward Islands to the north of it, and Porto Rico, and in 1494 he reached Jamaica. On his third voyage, in 1498, he discovered Trinidad, Tobago, Grenada, and the other southern islands, and set foot for the first time on the American continent.

Throughout the sixteenth century, Spain continued to claim exclusive rights of sovereignty and commerce in the West Indies, but her monopoly was contested by the English, French, and Dutch. English ships first made their appearance, under Sebastian Cabot, in 1516, and the second half of the century was made memorable by the exploits of Hawkins, Drake, Grenville, Oxenham, Dudley, Raleigh, and others.

In the seventeenth century the power of Spain was rapidly declining, and English, French, Danish, and Dutch settlements began to be established. England acquired Barbados by settlement in 1624, after formally taking possession of the island in 1605; and in 1655 she conquered Jamaica from Spain. Many of the smaller islands became the homes of English communities, of which some became permanent, while others were expelled by the indigenous Caribs, or by the French.

The eighteenth century witnessed an almost continuous struggle between Great Britain and France, the effect of which was gradually to increase the area of British territory in the West Indies. The peace of Paris in 1763 left her in possession of Grenada and the Grenadines, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago; and though many of these were temporarily lost during the war with the American colonies, all except Tobago were recovered, thanks mainly to Rodney's great victory off Dominica, when peace was signed at Versailles in 1783.

It was in the eighteenth century that the British West Indies attained the climax of their prosperity, but it was a prosperity chequered by adversity and distress. To the perils of invasion and capture were added those of negro risings, known as the Maroon wars, in Jamaica, and there were recurrent periods of commercial depression, of which the most acute was due to the suspension of the intimate trade relations with the North American continent during and after the War of Independence.

The close of the Napoleonic wars left the distribution of European power in the West Indies very much what it is to-day. France retained only Martinique, Guadeloupe and some inconsiderable islets. Her principal possession, the Island of Hayti, or Hispaniola, for long the richest and most fertile of all the Antilles, had been torn from her by an internal revolution; to-day it is divided between the two Republics of San Domingo and Hayti, socially, politically and economically backward. Other French islands—St. Lucia and Tobago—had passed

permanently into the hands of Great Britain. Spain still held Cuba and Puerto Rico, (of which the former has since become an independent Republic, and the latter a possession of the United States of America), but she had surrendered Trinidad to Great Britain. Holland retained Curaçao, Saba, St. Eustatius and half of St. Martin, which she continues to hold to-day, as does Denmark the Islands of St. Thomas, St. John and St. Croix.

The nineteenth century was, upon the whole, one of declining prosperity, and the islands lost the great value which they possessed in the eighteenth century, when the acquisition of fresh "sugar islands" was an object of keen international rivalry, and the West India trade was one of the most extensive and lucrative branches of British commerce. With the end of the Napoleonic wars the tide of colonial enterprise betook itself elsewhere. Soon after Waterloo, Ceylon and Singapore were occupied, fresh conquests were made in India, and the colonisation of South Africa and Australasia began in earnest. The decline of the West Indies has been largely due to a decline in the value of certain tropical products, arising from the opening of fresh sources of supply and the discovery of substitutes which can be produced in a temperate climate. But it has been accentuated by a number of other circumstances. In 1807 the slave-trade was abolished, and the liberation of the slaves in 1834 revolutionised the whole system of life in the West Indies. The difficulty of obtaining a sufficient supply of labour for the estates led to the system of introducing East Indian labourers under contract, which is still in force in Jamaica and Trinidad, and in the neighbouring continental colony of British Guiana. The rapid development of the Free Trade policy of Great Britain deprived the colonies of the preference which they enjoyed, at first against all foreign producers, and subsequently against those sources of supply which depended on slave labour. The development of the Continental system of granting bounties on beet sugar exposed the planters to a ruinous competition, which brought the price of their principal commodity at times below the cost of production, and shook the foundations of credit. More recently the acquisition by the United States of America of tropical dependencies, and the conclusion of a reciprocity treaty between the great Republic and the island of Cuba, have gone far to close to the British West Indies their nearest and most convenient market. These causes of depression have been aggravated by the unfortunate liability of many of the islands to great natural catastrophes, of which the hurricanes of 1898 and 1899 in the Leeward Islands, and 1903 in Jamaica, and the volcanic eruptions of 1902 in St. Vincent and the French island of Martinique are the most recent examples. The result.

has been a shrinkage of imports and exports, which Sir R. Giffen ("Economic Inquiries") remarks on as "almost the one unfavourable feature in the picture of general progress in the British Empire which the statistics present to us." Ceylon alone, for example, has a larger trade than the whole of the West Indies. The shrinkage of exports, however, in the statistics is largely due not to a falling off in the production, but to the diminished values of some of the largest products. To-day the prospects of the West Indies are brighter than they have been for many years. In 1897 the condition of the islands was exhaustively examined by a Royal Commission, and the gradual carrying out of its recommendations has done much to check their decline. The Brussels Convention, which came into force on September 1st, 1903, has abolished the bounty system, and the result has been a general revival of the cane sugar industry. But the colonies are no longer solely dependent on this industry for their commercial prosperity. There are to-day only three West Indian islands of which sugar continues to be the principal product—Barbados, Antigua and St. Kitts. In the two largest islands, Jamaica and Trinidad, sugar takes the second place among the exports, having yielded its position in the former to fruit, and in the latter to cocoa, the trade in both of which is rapidly increasing. Quite recently the West Indies have again turned their attention to cotton, of which in the eighteenth century they were the principal source of supply, and the revival of this industry has been attended with a success so remarkable that it affords one of the most hopeful signs for the future. Land is generally cheap, and, except in Barbados, only a small proportion is yet under cultivation. The population grows steadily, and tropical products are more and more in demand. There are, in fact, good grounds for believing that the worst has been seen of the period of commercial stagnation.

#### BAHAMAS.

The Bahamas, the most northerly of the British West Indian colonies, are a chain of coral islands lying between  $21^{\circ} 42'$  and  $27^{\circ} 34'$  N. lat., and  $72^{\circ} 40'$  and  $79^{\circ} 5'$  W. long., composed of about twenty inhabited islands, and an immense number of islets and rocks. The principal island is New Providence, containing the capital Nassau. The total area is 4,466 square miles, or about half the size of Wales.

*History.*—One of the islands was the first land discovered by Columbus on his voyage in 1492. A few years later all the Carib inhabitants were transported to work in the Cuba mines, and the islands were abandoned. Settlers from the Bermudas

found their way to them in considerable numbers about 1666. Most of the islands were granted by Charles II. to a proprietary body in 1670, but no regular government was established, and the islands became a regular rendezvous for pirates, who were finally extirpated in 1718 by the English. Great Britain was confirmed in their possession at the Peace of Versailles, 1783.

*Climate and Inhabitants.*—The climate is salubrious and very pleasant in the winter season, and the colony has in recent years been much frequented by visitors from the United States and Canada. The annual rainfall is 54·62 inches, the rainy season extending from June to October. The mean temperature is 79·5 degrees, the extreme range being from 54·7 to 96·2.

The population is 53,735. The majority of the inhabitants are of the negro race. About one-quarter are of European descent; English is universally spoken.

*Industry.*—The commercial relations of the colony are mainly with the United States. Considerable quantities of pineapples and oranges are exported, but the principal export is sponge.

The cultivation and preparation of the sisal fibre plant is an important industry.

Fishing is extensively carried on for the Nassau market. Turtle-shell, shell and pearls are largely exported. Sponge fishing employs a large fleet.

#### BARBADOS.

Barbados is situated in latitude 13° 4' N. and longitude 59° 37' W., and is the most easterly of the Caribbee Islands. It is nearly 21 miles long by 14 in breadth, and contains an area of 106,470 acres, or about 166 square miles, a little larger than Rutland.

The chief town is Bridgetown.

The population is estimated at 198,792. Labour is cheap, and the island has the appearance of a well-kept garden. There are large deposits of asphalt.

*History.*—Barbados is said to have been first visited by the Portuguese, who named the isle *Los Barbados*, from the number of bearded fig-trees which they found. In 1627 the Earl of Carlisle obtained a grant from Charles I. of all the Caribbee Islands, and in 1628 sixty-four settlers arrived in Carlisle Bay, and laid the foundation of Bridgetown, the present capital.

On the downfall of Charles, many families attached to the Royal cause found shelter in Barbados. The island was afterwards governed by Lord Willoughby, a Royalist, to whom it was conveyed by Lord Carlisle (son of the first patentee); but



when the island was subdued by the Commonwealth he was banished. In 1662, after the Restoration, Lord Willoughby renewed his claims, and to satisfy them a duty of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. on all exports was imposed; and under certain conditions the proprietary government was dissolved and the sovereignty of Barbados annexed to the British Crown. The inhabitants long protested against the imposition of the  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. duties, but without success; and it was not till 1838, four years after the abolition of slavery, that the tax was abolished by an Act of Parliament.

Barbados has not, like most of the neighbouring islands, changed owners; it has always remained in possession of Great Britain.

*Industry.*—The chief articles planted for exportation in early years were indigo, cotton-wool, ginger, and aloes, besides several kinds of woods; the manufacture of sugar does not appear to have been practised with much success till about the middle of the seventeenth century, when the cultivation of the sugar cane increased rapidly, and the plant became, in commercial importance, the island's most valuable production. The area under sugar cultivation is estimated at 60,000 acres. Cotton-growing has been revived, with help from the Island Treasury and the British Cotton-growing Association, and under the guidance of the Imperial Department of Agriculture.

## BERMUDA.

The "Bermudas" or "Somers' Islands" form a group or cluster of about 300 small islands, situated in an oval ring in the Western Atlantic Ocean, in lat.  $32^{\circ} 15' N.$ , and long.  $64^{\circ} 51' W.$ , about 580 miles to the eastward of Cape Hatteras in North Carolina, the nearest point of the neighbouring American continent. The total area is estimated at 19 square miles (less than one-eighth of Rutland).

The largest island, generally known as The Main Island, is about 14 miles in length, and about a mile in average width; it contains about 9,000 acres of land. All the other islands taken together measure about 3,000 acres. The city of Hamilton, now the seat of Government, is situated about the centre of the Main Island, where a deep inlet running up for two or three miles into the land from the sheltered waters, enclosed between the encircling reef, forms a safe and convenient harbour for the vessels which carry on the island trade.

Next in importance are the Island of St. George, Ireland Island, standing by itself in the centre of the inland waters, and entirely given up for the accommodation of His Majesty's

Dockyard and a number of other naval establishments, and Boaz and Watford Islands, intervening between Ireland Island and the rest of the group, and now exclusively occupied by military depôts and garrisons. The islands form an almost continuous chain, enclosing about 120 square miles of water, and there is uninterrupted communication by roads and bridges and causeways from St. George over the Main Island to Ireland Island—a distance of about 22 miles.

A little over a third of the inhabitants are of English descent, the remainder belonging to the negro race. English is universally spoken.

The climate has been long celebrated for its mildness and salubrity. The annual rainfall is about 60 inches, evenly distributed throughout the year. There is no winter, the thermometer never falling below 40 deg. of Fahr., and the summers are never very hot, the thermometer rarely rising above 85 deg. The summer heat, too, is generally tempered by a pleasant sea breeze.

A number of Boer prisoners of war were confined in the colony during the South African War (1899-1902).

*History.*—These islands were discovered in the year 1515, by a Spanish mariner, Juan Bermudez, but they were still entirely uninhabited when, in 1609, Admiral Sir George Somers was wrecked upon one of the numerous sunken reefs and gave his name to the group.

Soon afterwards the Virginia Company sought an extension of their Charter, so as to include the islands within their dominion, and this extension was readily granted by King James I., but the Virginia Company sold the islands for the sum of £2,000 to a new body of adventurers called "The Governor and Company of the City of London for the Plantation of the Somer Islands."

*Trade and Agriculture.*—The soil of Bermuda is generally poor in quality, and three-fourths of the area is quite unfit for cultivation.

But there being nothing to fear from winter frosts, the ground can be sown and planted at any time from the end of August to the end of March, and the Bermudians, taking advantage of this, raise large crops of early potatoes, onions, and lily bulbs, tomatoes and beetroot, with which they keep the New York market supplied at a time when those vegetables cannot be obtained from any other quarter. Practically the whole of the exports go to the United States, which also supplies two-thirds of the imports, the remainder coming from the United Kingdom and Canada.

Of late years the islands of Bermuda have become a favourite winter resort for Americans and Canadians seeking to escape the rigours of the climate of the continent. Large hotels have sprung up, and a considerable amount of money is expended by the visitors.

#### BRITISH GUIANA.

This colony is a portion of the South American continent, extending from east to west about 300 miles, and from north to south about 550 miles. It includes the settlements of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, and is bounded on the east by Dutch Guiana, on the south by Brazil, on the west by Venezuela, and on the north and north-east by the Atlantic Ocean. Its area is about 104,000 square miles, about the size of the United Kingdom. About 130 square miles only are under cultivation.

The western boundary was, till 1899, in dispute with Venezuela, and was then settled by arbitration. The south-western boundary of the colony was also finally settled in 1904, when the King of Italy decided between the claims of Great Britain and Brazil.

There are three navigable rivers—Demerara, Essequibo and Berbice. The capital is Georgetown (population 53,000), a handsome town. The vegetation of the country is magnificent; the *Victoria Regia* may be singled out—the water-lily with leaves five or six feet wide.

*History.*—The territory was first partially settled by the Dutch West India Company between 1616 and 1627. The Dutch retained their hold with more or less firmness, now yielding to England, now to France or Portugal, till 1796, when during the war of the French Revolution the settlements were captured by a British fleet from Barbados. The territory was restored to the Dutch in 1802, but in the following year retaken by Great Britain, and finally ceded to that power in 1814.

The present constitution is to a large extent based on that which prevailed under Dutch rule. There is a "Court of Policy," which has legislative power, and a "Combined Court," which discusses expenditure and imposes taxes.

*Climate.*—The climate is hot, but not unhealthy. The mean temperature throughout the year is about 82° Fahr., the mean maximum being 88° in the month of September, and the mean minimum 74° in the month of January. The heat, which is greatly tempered by cooling breezes from the sea, prevailing during the greater portion of the year, is felt more from July to October than at other times, owing to the partial cessation of these breezes. There are annually two wet

seasons, from June to the end of August and during December, January and February. The annual rainfall for the past ten years averages about 94 inches in Georgetown.

*Industry.*—The staple products of British Guiana were in former years sugar, rum, molasses, cotton, and coffee. “Demerara” sugar is known everywhere in the United Kingdom; in 1904–5, 106,716 tons were exported. The soil of some parts of the colony is capable of producing coffee of rare excellence. The latter two industries have now given place to the cultivation of the sugar cane, which at present is the chief industry of the colony, and furnishes seventy-two per cent. in value of its exports. Timber, charcoal, and balata, a species of gum, are also exported. The forests in the interior abound in valuable hard woods. Gold and diamonds are found; the value of the gold exported in 1904–5 was £352,125.

#### BRITISH HONDURAS.

British Honduras is on the east coast of Central America, bounded on the north by Yucatan, on the south and west by Guatemala, and on the east by the Bay of Honduras.

The area of the colony is 7,562 square miles, about the size of Wales. It is estimated that about 90 square miles are under cultivation.

In its physical outlines the colony resembles other parts of Central America, the land being flat and swampy throughout the greater portion of the coast line, and gradually rising as the interior is approached.

*History.*—The coast was discovered in 1502 by Columbus, and its early settlement is supposed to have been effected from Jamaica, about 1638, by adventurers, who were attracted by the fine timber (logwood and mahogany) which grew on the banks of the rivers. The name of the present chief town, Belize, is alleged to be a corruption of the name of the buccaneer Wallis.

By the treaty of Paris in 1763, it was agreed to abandon the settlements, and the forts were dismantled and the garrisons withdrawn. The settlers remained, however, and from that date until 1798, when the last attempt to establish the sovereignty of Spain over the territory was defeated by the inhabitants in the “Battle of St. George’s Cay,” the Spaniards made frequent but ineffectual attempts to expel the woodcutters by force of arms; and treaty after treaty was concluded, abandoning the territory to Spain, which had little other effect than to stimulate the enterprise of the settlers by the recognition, thus step by step accorded, of the footing they had gained



for themselves in Central America, without, in the first instance, any thought of territorial aggrandisement, but solely in pursuit of the industry in which their fortunes were embarked. In 1862 the settlement was declared a colony.

*Industry.*—The chief industry is wood-cutting, chiefly mahogany, cedar, and logwood. Tropical fruits, gums, oils, and rubber are also produced.

The colony was much more prosperous formerly when mahogany was a more favourite article of furniture. The substitution of iron for wooden ships has also gone against the place. Moreover, the cutters have now to go further inland for big trees, and the cost of operations is increased. There is, however, an immense forest area available as soon as roads can be made to open it up.

### JAMAICA.

Jamaica is an island in the Caribbean Sea, to the southward of the eastern extremity of the Island of Cuba. It is the largest of the British West Indies, being 144 miles in length, and 50 in extreme breadth, and containing about  $4,207\frac{1}{6}$  square miles—about half the size of Wales. The island is very mountainous, the main ridge running east and west, terminating in the famous Blue Mountains in the east, the highest peak being 7,423 feet high. There are numerous rivers and streams, with a rapid fall for the most part, and not navigable. Kingston, the capital, with a population of 48,504 in 1891, is situated on the south coast of the island, and has a fine harbour. In the middle part of the island, on the north of the main ridge, is the Roaring River, so called on account of its many picturesque waterfalls.

It is estimated that Jamaica contains 2,692,480 acres, from which may be deducted 80,000 acres as useless for agriculture, consisting chiefly of swamps, rocks, and inaccessible lands, leaving 2,612,400 acres available for cultivation. Of this 663,560 acres are returned as under cultivation in 1897.

*Climate and Inhabitants.*—There is great variety of climate; the mean temperature of Kingston is  $78.1^{\circ}$ , rising to  $87.8^{\circ}$  in the day time, and falling to  $70.7^{\circ}$  at night. As the temperature falls about  $1^{\circ}$  for every 300 feet of ascent, it is possible in a few hours to reach, in the central range of mountains, a cool and delightful climate. From Kingston, the capital, a change of  $10^{\circ}$  or  $15^{\circ}$  in temperature can be attained by a ride of three hours.

The rainy seasons occur generally and over the whole of the island in May and October, and last for about three weeks; but besides these heavy and periodical rainfalls, the ground is refreshed by continual showers; and in the N.E. portion of the island there is a rainy season usually at the end of the year. The mean annual rainfall varies throughout the island from about 34 inches at sea level to as much as 197 inches at Blue Mountain Peak.

Only two per cent. of the inhabitants are white; the remainder are chiefly of African descent, four-fifths being pure negroes. There are about 14,000 imported coolies, and about 481 Chinese (in 1897). English is universally spoken.

*History.*—The island was discovered by Columbus in 1494. He called it St. Jago, after the patron saint of Spain, but the new name was soon dropped in favour of the native one of Jamaica (Xaymaca—well watered). It remained in the possession of the Spaniards for 161 years, when it was attacked by a force sent by Cromwell, and capitulated, after a trifling resistance, in 1655. The colony grew fast, stimulated by the wealth brought into it by the buccaneers, who made Port Royal their headquarters and storehouse. This town was engulfed in the great earthquake of 1692. During the eighteenth century the island suffered from hurricanes, earthquakes, numerous slave insurrections, as well as wars with the Maroons, or mountaineers, the descendants of African slaves left by the Spaniards. When the slave trade was abolished, in 1807, there were 323,827 slaves in Jamaica. On the abolition of slavery in 1834, Jamaica received £6,161,927 of the £20,000,000 granted by the Imperial Government as compensation to the slave-owners. A serious rebellion among the black population in 1865 was suppressed by Governor Eyre with unnecessary violence, and he was recalled. Representative government was granted in 1866.

*Industry.*—Fruit, consisting of bananas, oranges, &c., is now one of the largest exports; the output of oranges in 1903-4 being 82,630,540, with a value of £72,301, and that of bananas being 7,803,243 bunches, with a value of £585,243.

The other chief crops are sugar, coffee, ginger, pimento; and the exports comprise, in addition to those products, rum, dyewood, and cocoa.

The chief imports are foodstuffs, clothing, hardware, alcohol, and building materials. Of the total trade of the island by far the greater portion is with the United Kingdom and the United States, Canada being next in importance.

## THE LEEWARD ISLANDS.

The Leeward Islands, so called in contrast to the Windward Islands, which are most exposed to the N.E. Trade, the prevailing wind in the West Indies, form the most northerly group of the Lesser Antilles. The present ownership of these islands illustrates the old competition for the West Indies. Some of them belong to Denmark (part of Virgin Islands), Holland (St. Eustatius, Saba, a part of St. Martin), France (Guadeloupe, Martinique, St. Bartholomew, and part of St. Martin) and the United States (Bieques and Culebra). The English Leeward Islands, comprising the Presidencies of Antigua, St. Kitts and Nevis, Montserrat, Dominica and the Virgin Islands, were constituted a single federal colony by an Act passed in the Imperial Parliament in the Session of 1871. The total area of the colony is 704 square miles, about the size of the county of Surrey, and its population about 127,434.

*History*.—The islands were discovered by Columbus on his second voyage, in 1493, and became British during the seventeenth century. They were all colonised from St. Kitts as centre, all included in the Carlisle grant, and possessed a common legislature as far back as the reign of William and Mary. The original general legislature met for the last time in 1798, when it passed a highly humane Slave Amelioration Act, which was allowed, a Catholic Emancipation Act, and an Act repealing the duty on exports of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. for the benefit of the English exchequer—both of which were disallowed. This ancient constitution was then abolished, and the islands were left to their own separate administration, until again consolidated by the Act of 1871. Under this Act there is a federal legislative council, representing the different islands, and competent to deal with certain specified subjects of general interest, such as the mercantile and criminal law; all other matters are dealt with separately by the island or "Presidency" legislatures, each for its own territory.

*Climate*.—The climate of the islands varies, but is usually dry and fairly healthy. Antigua is subject to drought, and has an average rainfall of about 46 inches. The mean temperature is about  $80^{\circ}$ , with but a slight range. The hot season is from May to October; the rainy season from August to December.

## ANTIGUA.

Antigua is about 54 miles in circumference, and its area is 108 square miles, about half the size of Middlesex.

The islands of Barbuda (population 775) and Redonda (population 120) are dependencies of Antigua. They have a total area of  $62\frac{1}{2}$  square miles, and the latter contains valuable phosphates. The chief productions of Antigua are sugar, cotton and pineapples, but much of the land has been allowed to pass out of cultivation.

### ST. CHRISTOPHER AND NEVIS.

This Presidency consists of the Islands of St. Christopher (St. Kitts), Nevis, and Anguilla, with their several dependencies.

The total population was 46,446 by the census of 1901, and the total area is about 150 square miles.

Tobacco was at first the principal crop grown, but it soon lost its pre-eminence, and the main industry of the two larger islands is now the production of sugar, molasses and rum. Sugar products form 99 per cent. of total exports. During the past few years the cultivation of cotton has been re-established with strikingly successful results.

The central part of St. Kitts consists of a range of lofty rugged mountains, which traverses it from south-east to north-west, attaining its greatest height at Mount Misery, which is about 3,711 feet above the sea. This range of hills describes nearly a semi-circle, forming the spacious and fertile valley or plain, on the seaboard of which lies Basseterre, the capital (population about 10,000.)

The climate, for a tropical one, is decidedly healthy. The highest temperature in the shade is about  $88^{\circ}$ , the lowest  $66^{\circ}$ , and the mean average about  $79^{\circ}$ .

St. Kitts was the first settled of the British West Indies. Mr. Thomas Warner, in 1623, commenced tobacco cultivation, and in 1625, at the instance of the Earl of Carlisle, to whom Charles I. had granted Letters Patent over the islands of St. Christopher, Nevis, Antigua, Montserrat and Barbados, was appointed Governor-General of these islands and Governor of St. Kitts. For more than a century French and English alternately took possession.

At the beginning of the war of the French Revolution, France enjoyed possession of the island, but it was restored to England, after Rodney's victory, by the Treaty of Versailles, 1783, and two French raids in 1805 and 1806 mark the close of the remarkable history of this island's warfares, which followed closely the varying fortunes of the mother country.



## NEVIS.

The island of Nevis was discovered in 1498 by Columbus and was colonised by the English from St. Kitts in 1628. Charlestown, the principal town, lies along the shore of a wide bay, and the mountain begins to rise immediately behind it. It has a population of about 1,500. The population of Nevis largely consists of peasant proprietors.

## DOMINICA.

Dominica is 29 miles long and 16 broad. It lies between the French islands of Guadeloupe and Martinique, being distant from each about 30 miles, and has an area of 291 square miles.

The island is very mountainous and picturesque. It was discovered by Christopher Columbus on Sunday (hence its name), the 3rd of November, 1493, in the course of his second voyage. It was included in the grant made of sundry islands in the Caribbean Sea to the Earl of Carlisle. It was, like many other islands, occupied successively by French and English, and contains the descendants of many French planters.

It is estimated that about 130,000 acres in the island are at present uncultivated. Much of this was at one time under coffee, but "blight" and the marauding of the Maroons led to the abandonment of many estates, while the depreciation of sugar still further reduced the area of cultivation. The soil is rich and the climate healthy, and the island is well adapted to the cultivation of coffee, especially Arabian, and on the higher slopes in the centre of the island, where a commencement in this direction has recently been made, cocoa, tea, limes, nutmegs, spices, and tropical fruits of all kinds.

Two-thirds of the inhabitants speak a French *patois*, but with compulsory education the acquisition and use of English is becoming more general.

## MONTSERRAT

This island, discovered by Columbus in 1493, was named by him after a famous mountain in Spain.

It is situated 27 miles from Antigua, and is about 11 miles in length, and seven in the broadest part. Its total area is  $32\frac{1}{2}$  square miles. It is of volcanic formation and very rugged and mountainous. The hills are covered with forest, the highest elevation being Soufrière Hill (3,000 feet), in the southern part of the island. Plymouth, the chief town, with a population of 1,461, is on an open roadstead on the south-west coast.

Montserrat was colonised by the English in 1632 ; the French took it in 1664, and levied heavy imposts on the inhabitants ; it was restored to England in 1668. It capitulated to the French in 1782, but was restored to the English in 1784.

The principal export of the island is sugar.

The next in importance is lime-juice, raw and concentrated. There are about 1,000 acres planted in lime trees.

#### VIRGIN ISLANDS.

The Virgin Islands were discovered by Columbus in 1493 ; they consist of a cluster of islands to westward of and adjacent to Porto Rico ; the largest in the group belonging to Great Britain is Tortola. These islands, so far as they are British, became so in 1666.

The total area of the British colony is about 58 square miles.

A small quantity of sugar is made in the Virgin Islands, and during the American Civil War the landed proprietors planted cotton, which grows luxuriantly. The peasants own and cultivate most of the land in small plots for subsistence. They also raise a few cattle, and catch fish. They take their produce in small boats to St. Thomas, and this constant sailing among the reefs and currents which surround the Virgin Islands, makes them the finest seamen in the West Indies. They are a hardy, intelligent race, remarkably distinct from the inhabitants of the neighbouring islands. Their trade and intercourse is with the Danish islands, and to a smaller extent with Hayti and San Domingo.

#### TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO.

##### TRINIDAD.

The island of Trinidad lies about 16 miles to the eastward of Venezuela, between  $10^{\circ} 3'$  and  $10^{\circ} 50'$  N. latitude, and  $61^{\circ} 39'$  and  $62^{\circ}$  W. longitude from Greenwich. Its average length is about 48 miles, and its average breadth 35 miles, and its area is 1,754 square miles. It is separated from the continent of America by the Gulf of Paria, into which fall the northern mouths of the Orinoco. The colony includes the island of Tobago (formerly in the Windward Islands), which was amalgamated with Trinidad in 1889.

The north coast is rock-bound, the east coast is so exposed to the surf as to be almost unapproachable, while the south coast is steep in most parts ; only on the west coast is there a good natural harbour, at Chaguaramas. The whole Gulf of Paria,

however, is so shut in and sheltered as to afford a most safe anchorage.

There are three ranges of hills running roughly east and west, the most northerly fringing the north coast, and rising to 3,000 feet. There are numerous rivers, but none of them of any size or navigable, and all running east or west.

The soil is varied, extremely fertile, and excellently adapted to the growth of tropical products, more particularly of sugar and cocoa, which are its staples. A little more than a third and a fourth of the whole trade of the Colony is with the United Kingdom and the United States of America respectively.

The climate of Trinidad is healthy, and by no means hurtful to Europeans, provided they take reasonable precautions. The average rainfall for the years 1862 to 1903, was 65·65 inches. The mean temperature during the year 1903-4 was 78·9 Fahr.

The chief town and principal port is Port of Spain (population by the census of 1901, 54,100), situated on a gently inclined plane near the north-east angle of the Gulf of Paria.

The next town and port is San Fernando (population in 1901, census, 7,613), about 30 miles south from Port of Spain.

A pitch lake, 114 acres in extent, distant by water about 30 miles from Port of Spain, is of considerable value. It was originally leased to an American Company, but is now carried on by English concessionaires.

The revenue derived by the colony from the pitch lake in 1903-4 was £64,676.

Of the total area of the colony, which is estimated at about 1,195,500 acres, the alienated acreage at the end of March, 1904, was estimated to be approximately 513,320 acres. About 300,000 acres are under cultivation; 606,680 acres remain ungranted.

The total length of railway is about 81½ miles, all constructed and worked by the Government. The total receipts from the railways, tramways and telegraphs during 1903-4 were £84,615, and the expenditure was £53,133.

The number of steamers calling at Trinidad averages during the year 53 per month.

*Coolie Immigration.*—Immigration from India is conducted under Government control. The numbers introduced in 1903-4, were 2,458.

*History.*—Trinidad was first discovered by Columbus, on his third voyage in 1498. It was visited in 1595 by Sir Walter Raleigh, who signalled his visit by burning the newly-founded town of St. Joseph. Towards the end of the eighteenth century there was a large influx of French families, who were driven

from St. Domingo and elsewhere by the terrible events of the French Revolution, and to this cause is to be traced the preponderance of the French element in a colony which never belonged to France.

On the 12th February, 1797, Great Britain being then at war with Spain, a British expedition sailed from Martinique for the reduction of Trinidad.

The expedition resulted in the surrender of the island to His Majesty's forces, and in 1802, it was finally ceded to the Crown of Great Britain by the Treaty of Amiens.

The population of Trinidad and Tobago, by the census of 1901, was 255,148. The white population is chiefly composed of English, Germans, French, Spanish, and there is a large proportion of East Indians totalling 86,373. The French lower classes speak a *patois* peculiar to the West Indies.

#### TOBAGO.

Tobago is the most southerly of the Windward group, and about 26 miles N.E. of Trinidad. It is 26 miles long and  $7\frac{1}{2}$  at its greatest breadth, and has an area of 114 square miles, or 73,313 acres, of which about 10,000 acres are under cultivation. About 15,000 acres of land were unowned, and have now been re-vested in the Crown.

The formation of the island is volcanic; its physical aspect is irregular and picturesque, with conical hills and ridges, which descend from a common base or dorsal ridge 1,800 feet high and 18 miles in length.

Sugar, rum, molasses, cocoa-nuts, and live stock form the principal articles of export. Cotton and indigo were formerly exported. Scarborough, the principal town, is on the south side of the island.

*History.*—Tobago was discovered by Columbus in 1498, at which time it was occupied by Caribs. The British flag was first planted on the island in 1580, and the sovereignty was regularly claimed by James I. in 1608. The Dutch, however, were the first to occupy it; during the French Revolution War the French took possession, and finally in 1814 it was ceded to Great Britain.

#### THE WINDWARD ISLANDS.

The Windward or the southern group of the West Indian Islands, includes the following islands lying in the order named from north to south, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Barbados, the Grenadines and Grenada. Trinidad belongs geographically more to the continent of South America than to the Antilles. All these islands are British.



Barbados and Trinidad (to which Tobago is attached) are entirely separate colonies, each under its own governor, and accounts of them will be found under their respective headings. The remaining three British colonies are now grouped for administrative purposes under one governor, who usually resides at St. George's, Grenada, and are together known as the Windward Islands. The total area of the combined colony is 524 square miles (about twice the size of Middlesex), and its population about 164,000.

The majority of the inhabitants are of the negro race, less than five per cent. being white. A few Caribs still remain in St. Vincent, and there are about 5,000 Indian coolies. English is usually spoken, except in Grenada and St. Lucia, where the prevailing language with the peasantry is a French *patois*.

Each island retains its own institutions, and, when the governor is absent, is presided over by a resident administrator, who is also colonial secretary. There is no common legislature, nor common laws, revenue, or tariff. There is, however, a common court of appeal, whose jurisdiction includes Barbados.

#### GRENADA.

Grenada, the most southerly of the Windward group, is about 21 miles in length, 12 miles in its greatest breadth, and contains about 133 square miles (about half the size of Middlesex). It lies 68 miles S.S.W. of St. Vincent, and about 90 miles north of Trinidad, and between it and the former island are certain small islands called the Grenadines, attached partly to the government of St. Vincent, and partly to that of Grenada.

Grenada is mountainous and very picturesque, its ridges of hills being covered with trees and brushwood. The mountains are chiefly volcanic, and have several lofty peaks.

St. George's, the principal town, possesses a fine harbour, and, owing to its situation, healthiness, and great natural advantages, including a plentiful supply of water of the purest quality, offers exceptional inducements as a port of call and coaling station for steamers.

The climate in the dry season is delightful. In the wet season, as in all other tropical islands, it is damp and hot. But for six winter months, say from December to May, it is excellent, and is healthy at all times. Yellow fever, the bugbear of the West Indies, is almost unknown, and if new arrivals do get a touch of "acclimatising fever," which is far from being the rule, it is mild and soon disappears.

*History.*—Grenada was discovered by Columbus in 1498.

In 1674 the island was annexed to France, but in 1762, it was surrendered to the British, and was formally ceded to

Great Britain by the Treaty of Peace signed at Paris in 1763, and again in 1783, by the Treaty of Peace of Versailles.

*Industry.*—The prosperity of the island, like that of its neighbours, depends almost entirely upon the planting industry. Unlike the other islands, however, it has long ceased to be a sugar-producing colony, and has therefore not suffered as they have from the depreciation in the value of cane sugar. The chief produce of Grenada is, and has been for some time, cocoa. Attention has been turned with some success to the cultivation of other economic plants, such for instance as coffee, kola-nut, cloves, vanilla, pepper, cardamoms, cocoa-nuts, &c. Nutmeg cultivation occupies a prominent position, and is being largely developed. So general is the cultivation of spices carried on here, that Grenada is already called “The Spice Island of the West.”

#### ST. LUCIA.

The island of St. Lucia was discovered by Columbus during his fourth voyage, on the 15th June, 1502. It is twenty-four miles in length, and twelve at its greatest breadth; its circumference is 150 miles, and its area 233·29 square miles, rather less than Middlesex.

Castries, the capital of the island, contains a population of about 8,000 souls.

On its final acquisition by the English, the island had become much depopulated, partly by war, but chiefly by internecine struggles, the fruits of the French Revolution. The recovery from this state of things has been slow, having been retarded by the severe epidemics of cholera and smallpox which have at different times visited the West Indies. Each census, however, has shown an advance in this respect, and the population now amounts to about 50,934. Most of the inhabitants speak a French *patois*, but English is gradually becoming more generally used. A very small percentage is of European descent, the remainder being of the negro race, except about 1,000 East Indian immigrants.

Owing to the introduction and spread of the mongoose, snakes are now but rarely met with. Among white inhabitants consumption, and other of the most fatal diseases of temperate climates, are almost unknown. The temperature from December to April seldom exceeds 80° Fahr, and a fresh Trade wind blows continuously. The scenery is of peculiar beauty, even as compared with that of other West India islands, and in the neighbourhood of the Pitons has the less common element of grandeur. These are two cone-shaped rocks rising sheer out of the sea to a height of nearly 3,000 feet, and near them is the

crater of a volcano and a soufrière, the ordinary characteristics of the Caribbean Cordillera.

Castries, the chief town, has an excellent harbour, probably the best in the whole of the West Indies. Dredging operations have been carried out in the harbour, rendering it more commodious.

*History.*—St. Lucia was usually in the possession of the French, till 1778, when effective measures were taken by the British for its conquest. In the early part of 1782 Rodney took up his station at St. Lucia, with a fleet of thirty-six sail of the line, and gained the memorable battle of that year. This event was followed by the Peace of Versailles, and St. Lucia was one more restored to France.

In 1793, on the declaration of war against revolutionary France, the West Indies became the scene of a series of naval and military operations, which resulted in the surrender of St. Lucia to the British arms in 1794.

The British retained possession of St. Lucia till 1802, when it was restored to France by the Treaty of Amiens; but on the renewal of hostilities it surrendered in 1803, since which period it has continued under British rule.

*Industry.*—Sugar, cocoa, logwood and spices are produced, but only about one-third of the island has ever been cultivated. The remainder is virgin forest of great fertility, and abounding in timber suitable for building and for the finest cabinet work.

Nearly all this land is in the possession of the Crown, and may be purchased in small or large lots at £1 an acre. This soil will grow any kind of tropical fruit trees or industrial plants.

#### ST. VINCENT

The Island of St. Vincent is popularly supposed to have been discovered by Columbus on the 22nd January, 1498. It is 18 miles in length, and 11 in breadth, and contains about 85,000 acres of land, about half the area of Middlesex.

Kingstown, the capital of St. Vincent, is situated at the side of an extensive bay, at the south-western extremity of the island. It consists of three principal streets, each about a mile long, running parallel with the beach, and contains a population of about 4,000 souls.

The most striking natural feature of the island is its "Soufrière," or volcano, hitherto celebrated for the violence of its eruption in 1812. This mountain is situated at the northern extremity of the island, and rises to about 4,048 feet

above the level of the sea. After remaining dormant for a period of ninety years, it broke into violent eruption again on May 7th, 1902, when the entire northern half of the island was devastated, and nearly 2,000 lives were lost. The eruption synchronised with that of Mont Pélée, in Martinique, which destroyed the town of St. Pierre. The Soufrière remained intermittently active throughout 1902, and there was a further eruption in March, 1903, since when it has remained quiescent.

The whole island is of volcanic origin. A backbone of densely wooded and almost impassable mountains traverses it.

In September, 1898, the island was visited by a severe hurricane, which caused widespread destruction, and reduced large numbers of the inhabitants to destitution. St. Lucia and Barbados also suffered from this storm, but in lesser degree.

In the dry season, December to June, the climate is charming. In the wet season, and especially from August to November, the climate is damp and hot, but not at all unhealthy, and fever is almost unknown. The nights are cool all the year round.

*History.*—At the time of its discovery, St. Vincent, like some of the other small islands, was inhabited by the Caribs, who continued in the undisputed possession of it until 1627, when the King of England made a grant of the island to the Earl of Carlisle.

It passed through the usual vicissitudes of French and English occupation.

*Industry.*—Sugar, rum, cocoa, and excellent arrowroot are produced. The cultivation of ground-nuts and spices is also attracting attention, and cotton has been extensively planted since 1903, for the ginning of which a Government factory has been erected. Most of the sugar and all the arrowroot mills are worked by water power. A large proportion of the cultivable land is owned by a few individuals; portions of Crown lands, which hitherto remained uncultivated, are in process of alienation to peasant proprietors, and several estates have recently been purchased by the Government with the aid of an Imperial grant, and are being allotted to the same class of settlers. The forests produce excellent woods. There are 55 miles of highway running round the island, for the most part close to the coast, but on the leeward coast communication is mainly by boat, and nearly all the produce is water-borne.



### 3. AUSTRALASIA.

#### AUSTRALIA.

The seagirt continent of Australia lies to the south and south-east of the Malay Archipelago and contains an area equal to about four-fifths of Europe. Its population in 1901 (exclusive of aborigines) was 3,599,240. With the adjacent island of Tasmania (population 172,475) it is united under one Federal Government.

In build Australia may be described as consisting of a vast plateau filling the whole of the interior bordered on east and west by ranges of mountains, between which and the ocean runs a low well-watered plain varying in breadth. About half a million square miles in the centre of the continent are occupied by a vast concave plain of sandstone, largely desert and much of it below sea level. This depression contains numerous salt marshes or lakes. The eastern range of mountains run from Cape York, the northern extremity of the continent, to Wilson Promontory, the southern. They are highest in their southern half, the most elevated peak being Mount Townsend in New South Wales, which is about half the height of Mont Blanc. Their seaward slope is sharp and precipitous, on the west they merge gradually into the central plateau. On the west of the continent, the mountains are lower and less continuous than on the east. Between the eastern ranges and the central depression lies the great plain which forms the basin of the Murray the Murrumbidgee and the Darling Rivers.

The coast line of Australia, like that of Africa, is very regular in shape. The Gulf of Carpentaria in the north, and Spencer Gulf in the south are almost the only large inlets. The north-east coast is fringed for 1,200 miles by the Great Barrier Reef, a series of coral rocks 20—70 miles distant from the coast and in the south about 100 miles wide.

*Climate.*—The climate of Australia, of course, varies with the latitude but is generally characterised by dryness, except on the

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For much of the information contained in the chapters on Australia and New Zealand, the Editors desire to express their acknowledgments to the "Statistical Account of Australia and New Zealand," and to the "New Zealand Official Year Book."

east coast. The northern third of the continent is within the tropics, while in the south Victoria possesses a temperate and equable climate.

*Flora and Fauna.*—The flora and fauna of Australia are unique, and altogether different from those of other parts of the globe—resembling in many respects the life which existed in Europe in ancient geological epochs.

The flora is very rich in species; the most characteristic trees are the eucalypti and acacias. The former often attain a girth of 20 feet and a height of 250 feet, while they have reached 480 feet.

The characteristic animals are the marsupials, a pouch-bearing and low type of mammals, which, with the exception of a single family of American opossums, is now found nowhere but in Australia and the neighbouring islands, though their fossil remains show that, thousand of years before the formation of those massive beds of chalk which extend across and beneath England from Dorset and Beachy Head to Yorkshire, the marsupials were the prevailing European mammals. The Australian marsupials comprise the kangaroos of various genera, varying in size from the great grey kangaroo, five feet high and fourteen stone in weight, to the little rat kangaroos, less than one foot in length; the opossums and flying squirrels; the wombats—animals resembling in habits and appearance the badgers; the so-called “bandicoots”; and the dasyures, which include the carnivorous and nocturnal “Tasmanial wolf” and “Tasmanian devil”—the former about four to five feet in length, and the latter two feet.

The higher mammals are scantily represented by the dingo, a wild dog about the size of a wolf, which some think is not indigenous to Australia, and a number of rats and bats, besides such aquatic animals as the dugong, whale, and seal.

Inferior in type even to the marsupials and occupying the lowest position in the mammalia are the cold-blooded platypus and echidna. The former is about two feet in length with a valuable fur; it has webbed forefeet, hindfeet like a mole's, a bill like that of a duck, and it lays eggs and hatches its young like a bird. It lives on the banks of rivers. The echidna is a burrowing anteater which also lays eggs, but instead of hatching them like the platypus, it carries them in its pouch until they hatch out.

Snakes are numerous, and many kinds are poisonous.

Of birds, Australia has 600 to 700 species, of which about 500 are found nowhere else. They are characterised by brilliance of plumage and absence of song. They include the emu and the cassowary, ostrich-like birds, the former growing to six feet in height, and the latter rather under five feet.

There are also the "laughing jackass," a bird about the size of a crow of dull brown colour with a powerful bill which emits a discordant cackle, and many parrots and cockatoos. The lyre birds are remarkable for their magnificent tails, shaped like a lyre, the bower-birds decorate their abodes with feathers, bones, &c., and the brush-birds, instead of sitting on their eggs, bury them in large heaps of vegetable matter and leave them to be hatched by the heat of the decaying mass and of the sun.

*Aborigines.*—The Australian aborigines are said to belong to the Austral-Negro family. They are of average European height with narrow head, low brow, broad nose, and brown skin; their habits are extremely primitive. Their number is difficult to estimate. The census of 1901 showed 40,880 full-blooded aborigines and 7,368 half-castes. But these figures only include those living within the bounds of settlement, and even in that area their migratory habits renders enumeration difficult. The large majority of the race roam the unsettled regions of Queensland, South Australia, and Western Australia, and the total aboriginal population of Australia has been roughly estimated at 153,000.

*The National Character.*—Australia and New Zealand are the most British of the colonies; 95 per cent. of the population is of British descent, and the national type in character and physique is preserved, perhaps, more than anywhere else oversea. Their exploits in cricket, football, rowing, and athletic sports indicate the similarity of tastes. The Melbourne Cup is as great an event in Australia as the Derby is at home. Collectively, the Australians aim not so much at rapid progress, attended by great increases of population and wealth, as at a general standard of comfort and a minimum of poverty. The land laws are being designed more and more to put the soil in the hands of small farmers. The Labour Party is strong, and exercises a great influence upon the ministry. Numerous Acts have thus been passed, as indicated in the chapter on "Legislation," to protect the workman, and undoubtedly have greatly ameliorated the lot of those in employment. This protection cannot be given without diminishing the profits of employers, and it has been alleged that capital is deterred from entering Australia by the conditions imposed. Even if this is the case to some extent, the general standard of well-being that has been achieved is much to be proud of. If the debt is considerable, the capacity to work is remarkable; the labour per head represented in the exports is, Sir G. Giffen has remarked, "truly enormous"—thus it is more than double that of Canada.

*History.*—The Torres Straits between Cape York and New Guinea were discovered by De Torres in 1606, but there is no evidence that he sighted Australia. In the same year however a small Dutch vessel the “Duyfken” sailed from Java and coasted along the Gulf of Carpentaria. During the 17th century various Dutch navigators visited the northern and western coasts of Australia, to which they gave the name of New Holland, and in 1642 Tasman discovered Tasmania, which he named Van Dieman’s Land.

The first Englishman to sight the continent of Australia was Wm. Dampier, a buccaneer, who made two voyages to the north-west coast, in the second of which in 1699 he explored from Shark Bay to Roebuck Bay. The country was reported by him to be barren and worthless, and for about seventy years little or no attention was paid to it by European nations; and for practical purposes the history of Australia starts in 1768, when Captain Cook in command of H.M.S. “Endeavour” with two naturalists and an astronomer on board set sail for the Pacific to observe the transit of Venus and to explore the Southern Seas. After accomplishing the first object at Tahiti, Cook proceeded westward and southward in order to discover the eastern coast of the New Holland whose western shores had been known so long to the Dutch. After discovering New Zealand, he sighted the east coast of Australia on 19th April 1770; and coasting northwards dropped anchor in Botany Bay, where the naturalists were soon busy in collecting new and wonderful plants. The British flag was hoisted, a seaman buried, and Cook proceeded on his northward voyage. Having grounded on the great Barrier Reef and been with difficulty repaired, the “Endeavour” reached Cape York, and Cook after taking possession, in the name of George III., of the whole eastern coast as New South Wales sailed for the East Indies.

On Cook’s return to England much interest was shown in the newly discovered lands, but the war with the North American Colonies and then with France, Spain and Holland ensued, and nothing was done for some years to take advantage of his discoveries. After the Treaty of Versailles (1783) had put an end to the war, Great Britain found herself at peace and with a large number of convicts accumulating on her hands, who could no longer be shipped off to the North American Colonies. The Government accordingly turned its attention to the new lands in the Southern Hemisphere and decided to plant a convict settlement there. New Zealand was rejected, possibly in view of the presence there of a warlike race with cannibalistic tendencies, and Botany Bay was selected as a site for the new colony. In May 1787 a fleet of eleven vessels and about 750 convicts were entrusted to Captain Phillip, R.N., and in January 1788 they arrived at Botany Bay. This



was at once found to be unsuitable as a site and the fleet moved on to the magnificent inlet of Port Jackson, where the settlers disembarked and founded the town of Sydney—so named from Viscount Sydney, the then Secretary of State for the Colonies. Land was cleared and corn sown but the soil proved unsuitable and the crop was a failure. Famine soon stared the settlers in the face and a party was despatched to Norfolk Island, where attempts to grow wheat were more successful. Matters were in a critical position until 1790, when a second fleet arrived with more convicts, stores, and the New South Wales Corps. The latter was a force recruited for service in the new colony in place of the marines who had accompanied the first fleet and now returned home.

For some years little of note occurred. Some free settlers were introduced and the New South Wales Corps, having little military service to do, developed into a farming and trading body whose members assisted greatly in developing the colony but whose methods brought them before long into serious conflicts with successive governors. Some of the officers established a more or less illicit trade in rum ; others, especially Captain MacArthur, introduced Spanish merinos and started the Australian wool growing industry. The friction between the corps and the Government increased, until in 1808 it culminated in the arrest of the fourth governor, Captain Bligh formerly of the *Bounty*, by the commandant of the corps and the usurpation of the administration by the military. On the arrival as governor in 1809 of Colonel Macquarie matters improved and under his administration Australia developed rapidly. Exploration of the coasts had been going on for some time and settlements had been established in Tasmania, in 1803-4 at Hobart (to which in 1805 the settlement at Norfolk Island was transferred), and about the same time in the north of the Island. Governor Macquarie encouraged exploration of the interior of the continent, and in 1813 a passage was discovered through the Blue Mountains which till then had barred an advance inland. The Bathurst Plains were thus opened up to settlement and sheep and were connected with Sydney by a road. Free settlers poured in after the peace of 1815 and the bank of New South Wales was founded. At the departure of Macquarie in 1821, New South Wales was firmly established, the population was over 30,000, and all the elements of a vigorous community were secured.

The second period of Australian history lasts from 1821 to 1851 and is one of constant expansion. The year 1823 saw the supersession of military by Crown Colony Government with a legislative council of seven members nominated by the governor (in 1828 increased to 15). In 1824 liberty of the press, a regular court of justice, and trial by jury were

established. In 1825 Tasmania became a separate colony with executive and legislative councils similar in constitution to those of the mother colony.

The same want of accommodation for convicts which led to the settlement of Tasmania induced the Government in 1823 to decide to establish a penal settlement at Moreton Bay (Queensland). This was done in 1824 and Brisbane was founded a few miles up the river of that name. In 1827 Allan Cunningham set out from the Hunter River and crossed the Dividing Range. He then turned northward and crossing the Dumaresq River at length reached the famous Darling Downs. A passage through the mountains to Brisbane was found, but the settlement there did not flourish, and before long it was decided to abandon it as a penal settlement. This was done in 1839, and in 1840 the first free settlers arrived and the first station was formed on Darling Downs. Squatters from the Sydney districts moved in, and in the next few years the country was explored and land rapidly taken up, though the natives gave considerable trouble. A struggle soon ensued between the squatters who desired a renewal of transportation so as to obtain cheap labour and the selectors who were averse to the reintroduction of the convict element. In 1843 Moreton Bay was granted representation in the newly constituted legislative council of New South Wales. The fifties saw an agitation for separation from the mother colony which was successful in 1859 when responsible government was also accorded.

A settlement had been sent out to Port Phillip in 1803, but after about four months it was transferred to Van Dieman's Land. It was however from Van Dieman's Land that in 1835 the Port Phillip district was colonised. Two parties under Batman and Fawkner respectively led the way, and were soon followed by other settlers from Van Dieman's Land and joined by stockmen travelling overland from the Sydney district. Before long, flocks and herds covered the downs and valleys around Melbourne and Geelong. The fertile district of Gippsland east of Melbourne was discovered in 1840 and steady progress ensued. In 1842 Melbourne was incorporated and the district was given six representatives in the New South Wales Legislative Council. A movement in favour of separation from New South Wales was successful in 1851, when Victoria was made a separate colony with a legislative council, two-thirds elected.

In 1830 Captain Sturt, who had previously discovered the Darling, descended the Murrumbidgee and reached the coast via the Murray, thus opening up to the world the vast and fertile basin of these rivers. In 1834 a committee was formed in England called the South Australian Association and the

Crown was empowered by Act of Parliament to set up a separate colony in the South of Australia lying between the 132nd and 141st meridians of east longitude. The Act also provided that no convicts should be sent to this colony and that the proceeds of the sale of lands there should be devoted to the promotion of immigration according to the colonisation scheme associated with the name of Edward Gibbon Wakefield, who was one of the chief members of the Association.

The first emigrants arrived in 1836 and settled at Adelaide on the east coast of St. Vincent Gulf but about four miles inland on the River Torrens. The peculiar character of the scheme under which the colony was started, by which the financial requirements were provided by a company and the administration controlled by the Government, soon led to disputes. Sheep were introduced overland from Sydney but in 1838 the expenditure was £16,580 against a revenue of £1,448, and hardly any agricultural operations had been undertaken. A policy of extensive public works resulted in very large deficits in 1839-41. The Government finally in 1841 sent out Captain (afterwards Sir) George Grey as Governor, and on the recommendation of a Parliamentary Select Committee paid the debts incurred and took over the administration altogether from the commissioners who had represented the association which had financed the enterprise. Under Captain Grey's care the colony, after a severe struggle, emerged from its financial and other difficulties. Agriculture spread, and the rich copper mines of Kapunda and Burra Burra were discovered, and when in 1845 Captain Grey was transferred to New Zealand he left South Australia on the road to prosperity. Various expeditions had penetrated the interior of the country and much fine pastoral land had been found. In 1850 South Australia, like Victoria and Tasmania, received a constitution similar to that granted to New South Wales in 1842, a legislative council, two-thirds elected, being established. The governor however as representative of the Crown retained full control over the revenue from the public lands.

The first settlement in Western Australia was on a small scale at King George's Sound at the south-west corner of the continent, and was made in 1825 in consequence of the suspicion that France had designs upon some portion of the coast. In 1827 the Swan River district was examined and found to be suitable for settlement, and in 1827 formal possession was taken of all that part of Australia not included in New South Wales. In the same year immigrants were sent from England, land being offered free to settlers in proportion to the capital and labour introduced by them. The liberal offers made by Government attracted many capitalists and large areas of land were speedily taken up, but many of the settlers



were quite unsuited to a rough pioneer life, and the settlement soon languished. Attacks by the natives added to its difficulties, while its isolated position—2,000 miles from the eastern settlements—cut it off from the rest of Australia. Most of the best portions of those districts which from their position might easily have been profitably cultivated were locked up in large undeveloped estates and the poorer settlers were shut out from the land. At last the colonists petitioned His Majesty's Government for the introduction of convicts, hoping thus to obtain cheap labour, a market for their produce, and the large local expenditure involved by a convict establishment. In 1850 the first batch of convicts arrived. Transportation to Western Australia continued till its entire abolition in 1868, and during that time about 10,000 convicts were introduced—a large proportion of whom were however agricultural labourers who had fallen under the ban of the English Game Laws and developed into useful settlers.

To return to the senior colony—in New South Wales the thirties witnessed the steady development of the community and numerous journeys of discovery into the interior. In 1827 it had become financially self-supporting. A feeling against the transportation of convicts gradually grew up as the number of free settlers increased and was strengthened by the revelations of the Parliamentary Committee which in 1837–8 examined into the working of the convict system. The large landowners supported a system under which they obtained cheap labour; but their efforts did not prevail, and in 1840 transportation to New South Wales was abolished. In the same year an important change was made in the rules regulating the sale of land. The land of the colony belonged to the Crown. Before 1831 alienation had been effected by grants but in that year the principle of sale by auction with a fixed upset price was introduced. In 1840 it was settled that the proceeds of land sales in each colony should be regarded as held in trust for the benefit of the colony and expended on public works and the encouragement of emigration.

With the abolition of transportation and increasing population and trade there arose a demand for a more representative system of government and in 1842 the legislative council was increased to 36 members of whom 24 were to be elected on a moderate franchise. The executive, however, remained under the control of the Home Government.

Speculation in land led to commercial disasters, and 1842–3 were years of severe depression in Melbourne and Adelaide as well as in New South Wales, only relieved by the discoveries of copper in South Australia.

The third period of the history of Australia commences with the discovery of gold on a large scale and closes with



the federation of the six colonies into one Commonwealth in 1901.

The year 1851 was rendered memorable by the discovery of the precious metal in New South Wales and Victoria. Traces of gold had been found in 1839 by Count Strzelecki when exploring in Victoria, and again in 1841 by the Rev. W. B. Clarke near Bathurst in New South Wales. But the Count was persuaded to keep the matter secret by Governor Gipps who was afraid of its effects upon a convict community, and the probable existence of gold in the Great Dividing Range of Australia remained unknown to the public. In 1851 however Hargreaves who had mined for gold in California found the metal near Bathurst, and his discovery was followed by still richer finds in Victoria.

Men made fortunes in a few weeks or months, and the natural result followed. Everyone who could flocked to the diggings. Most branches of industry and all public works came to a standstill for want of labour; the sheep and cattle stations and the farms were deserted by their hands, and aborigines alone could be got to work upon them. Tasmania was almost depopulated. Immigrants poured from Europe and elsewhere into the goldfields, especially those in Victoria.

The discovery of gold not only disorganised the Public Services of Victoria and New South Wales, but led to difficulties with the miners. The waste land where the gold was found belonged to the Crown, and therefore the gold found in it was also legally the Crown's property. In New South Wales the Government allowed digging upon payment of a monthly licence fee, but a similar enactment in Victoria led the larger and rougher mining population of that colony, after three years of agitation and evasion of payment of the fees, to rise in armed revolt in 1854 at Ballarat. The Eureka stockade, behind which the insurgents entrenched themselves, was carried by assault by regular troops and police and the rising was suppressed, but the sympathy of the Victorian community with the movement was so strong that, although taken in the act of rebellion, the ringleaders were in every case acquitted by the juries. The outbreak led to the substitution for the previous system of a low licence fee and an export duty on the metal.

As a result of the gold-fever, wages rose to double and treble their former rates, and prices of provisions and other articles followed suit. It is from this time that the high wages still prevailing in Australia date their origin.

When in 1859 the gold fever was practically over and the alluvial diggings worked out, the population of Australia had largely increased—from about 403,000 in 1851 to about 1,153,000 in 1861, Victoria had taken the position of the wealthiest, the most populous, and the most important colony

in Australia, and Melbourne had become the financial centre of the continent.

Meanwhile in 1855 in the midst of the excitement and difficulties of the gold period, the Colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania were invested with responsible government, and the same course was taken in the case of Queensland in 1859 on its separation from New South Wales. In each case the new legislature consisted of two houses. In New South Wales and Queensland the members of the second chamber are nominated by the governor for life; in Victoria, Tasmania, and South Australia they are elected for a term of years.

The history of the Australian states possessing responsible government for the quarter of a century after was one of vigorous development of natural resources with an occasional constitutional crisis through a quarrel between the two houses of the legislatures. The production of gold, though still large, fell off steadily from over £14,000,000 in 1853 to under £4,500,000 in 1886. Since the latter date, owing to discoveries in Queensland and the development of the still richer mines of Western Australia, it has increased largely, and in 1903 totalled £16,294,479, of which £8,770,720 was credited to West Australia. Mines of silver and coal (mainly in New South Wales) and of copper (mainly in New South Wales, South Australia, and Tasmania) have been extensively worked, and the mineral resources of the continent, though far from fully developed, are undoubtedly extremely valuable and varied.

The extensive programmes of public works upon which the states entered on being granted responsible government, the building of railways, docks, etc., resulted in a large public debt, which in 1903-4 reached a total of over £227,500,000 as compared with less than £11,500,000 in 1861.

Standing outside the rapid progress of the more advanced states, Western Australia plodded slowly on its way. In 1870—two years after transportation had been discontinued—a two-thirds elective legislative council was constituted, and lasted till 1890, when responsible government was obtained. The second chamber was at first nominated, but is now elective. The period of West Australia's prosperity and rapid development commenced in the early nineties with the great discoveries of gold in the central and eastern districts of the state.

The creation of a general assembly to deal with questions common to all the Australian colonies was mooted at the time of the granting of responsible government; but though the want of such a body was felt from time to time, nothing was done to supply it until 1885, when an Act of Parliament was passed creating a council of delegates from each colony which

agreed to join. While it was mainly a deliberative body this federal council possessed certain legislative powers. Meetings were held regularly from 1886 to 1899, but New South Wales steadily declined to send delegates and South Australia was only represented in the session of 1889.

Soon after the creation of the federal council a movement commenced for the establishment of a more effective federation, to embrace a federal executive as well as legislature; and in 1891 after a preliminary conference held the previous year an Australasian Convention met at Sydney and agreed upon a draft bill to establish a federal commonwealth. The bill aroused no popular enthusiasm and failed to command the serious attention of any of the colonial legislatures. The supporters of the federal idea however began a popular agitation, which soon placed the matter on a more promising footing. The premiers of all the Australian colonies met in 1895 and decided to ask their legislatures to pass a bill enabling the electors to choose ten persons to represent the colony on a new convention. This convention, on which Queensland was not represented, finally drew up in 1898 a bill which was submitted to the popular vote for acceptance or rejection. In Victoria, Tasmania, and South Australia the bill was accepted by large majorities, but in New South Wales the majority in favour of it was small, and the number of affirmative votes was insufficient, according to the Enabling Act of that colony, to allow it to be carried. In Western Australia it was not put to the vote, as the Enabling Act only provided for joining a federation of which New South Wales should form part. Queensland for the time stood out from the negotiations.

In 1899 another conference of Premiers was held, at which Queensland was represented, and certain alterations were made to meet the objections to the measure held in New South Wales. A bill for a referendum on the subject was then submitted to the New South Wales Legislature. After a struggle between the two houses, which had to be ended by the appointment of 12 new members to overcome the opposition of the upper house, the Bill passed; and this time on a referendum the Federation Bill was accepted by a substantial majority, a course which was followed by all the other Australian colonies—though not by Western Australia till July 1900.

The discussion was then transferred to England and, after some difficulties over a clause withholding the right of appeal to the Privy Council in cases affecting the interpretation of the Federal or State constitutions which were finally overcome by the acceptance of a compromise, the Bill was agreed to by Her Majesty's Government, and an Act adopting it was passed by Parliament; this Act after receiving the Queen's assent on 9th July 1900 came into force on 1st January 1901,

when Sir E. Barton, of New South Wales, formed the first Federal Ministry.

*Constitution.*—The Australian Federation differs in important respects from the Canadian. The original colonies remain self-governing states, with governors selected by and corresponding with the Secretary of State for the Colonies. The federal legislature, like that of that of the United States, possesses only those powers which have been expressly delegated to it, and the members of the upper house or Senate are elected by the popular vote for a term of six years instead of being nominated by the Governor-General for life as in Canada. Up to the present the seat of the Commonwealth Government has been at Melbourne, but according to the Constitution Act the federal capital is to be in New South Wales, at least 100 miles distant from Sydney. The Senate consists of six members from each state, on the same franchise as in the case of members of the House of Representatives.

The House of Representatives has twice as many members as the Senate, and the number of members for each state is in proportion to its population, but so that there are not less than five for any state. Plural voting is not allowed.

The general powers of Parliament are thirty-nine in number, the principal of which are to make laws for trade, taxation, borrowing, postal services, defence, currency, insolvency, marriage, immigration and railways. The Commonwealth took over from the states the posts and telegraphs, but not the railways. It fixes and receives the customs duties, which are now uniform in the states, and pays three-fourths of the proceeds to the states. The existing public debts remain chargeable to the states, but may be taken over by the Commonwealth on certain conditions. It is not altogether surprising that these financial arrangements cause some friction and it will take some time before they are finally settled, but generally speaking the Constitution Act drafted by the Australian statesmen was an admirable piece of constructive work.

*Industries and Resources.*—The first important product of Australia was wool, and Australia now supplies a large proportion of the two to two and a-half million bales sold annually in London. The value of the wool produced from the fifty-five million sheep of Australia in 1903 amounted to about £14,000,000. It may be remarked that, while the world's area of land for tropical and cereal products is practically unlimited, the area suitable for the production of good merino wool is comparatively small, and the prosperity of Australia depends largely on this fact; drought is the great drawback, but the country shows a marvellous power of recuperation. The chief



wool-producing state is New South Wales, followed by Victoria and Queensland. Cattle numbered over seven million in 1903, Queensland being the leading state, and there is a considerable export of frozen and preserved beef. The value of the products of pastoral industries in 1903 amounted in all to over £25,500,000. Mining contributed nearly £24,000,000, the most important metals produced being gold, coal, silver, copper, and tin, with values in the order named.

Agricultural products totalled just over £26,750,000, for which Victoria and New South Wales were mainly responsible. Wheat, hay, oats, maize, potatoes, wine and fruit are the most important products. Sugar is produced in Queensland and New South Wales. Butter and cheese are also largely produced.

The chief manufacturing states are New South Wales and Victoria, which account for £19,000,000 out of the £28,500,000 worth of manufactures produced in Australia in 1903.

The commerce of Australia is larger per head of inhabitants than that of any country, except Belgium, and exhibits vigorous growth—the exports per head are almost double those of Canada. The net imports in 1904 amounted to over £34,500,000, and the net exports to over £55,000,000, of which £16,500,000 was represented by the precious metals. The chief imports are textiles, machinery and hardware, tobacco and stimulants, sugar, corn, manures and chemicals, tea, timber, paper, explosives, and groceries.

The principal exports are wool, gold, hides and leather, coal, copper, tin and lead, frozen meat, silver, butter and pearl shell.

Of the external trade 46 per cent. is still with the United Kingdom, though the trade between the two countries has diminished of recent years both actually and relatively; of the remainder, that with British possessions (£20,500,000) is mainly with New Zealand, India, Ceylon, and South Africa.

Most of the expenditure of the public loans has been on productive works, and there is an annual profit which is put at equal to 2·30 per cent. on the total debt. Against the debt may be set, in addition to the present revenues, the Crown lands which are not yet alienated; they amount to over 1,780,000,000 acres, though of course they can only be rendered available gradually.

## NEW SOUTH WALES.

This colony, the oldest in Australia, is bounded on the east by the Pacific Ocean from Point Danger in the north to Cape Howe in the south. From Cape Howe the boundary runs to the source of the Indi River, thence along the Indi and the Murray to the 141st meridian of east longitude, thence north

along that meridian until it meets the 29th parallel of south latitude, then along that parallel to the Macintyre River, after which the line runs along the course of that river and its tributary, the Dumaresq. From the latter it runs north-east along a range of hills to the sea. The area of New South Wales is 310,700 square miles, or a little over two and a-half times that of the United Kingdom. The population is estimated at 1,445,728. The chief town is Sydney (population 487,900) on the centre of the east coast. The chief mountains running through it from north to south are the New England Range, the Liverpool Range, and the Blue Mountains. Its main rivers are the Murray, the Murrumbidgee, the Darling, the Lachlan, and the Macquarie. On the east of the Dividing Range there are a number of smaller rivers, most of which are navigable for some distance inland.

New South Wales falls into three natural divisions, the coast district, the table lands, and the central and western plains. The coast district is a strip of undulating land averaging about sixty miles wide with a rich soil and well watered. The table lands consist of a high plateau traversing the entire length of the country and forming the summit of the Main Dividing Range. The width and altitude of these table lands are greatest in the south-east of the state, where Mount Koscuisko and Mount Townsend rise to a height of over 7,000 feet. On the west the table lands slope gently towards the great central and western plains. In the extreme west of the state another mountain system is found forming the western boundary to the great plains. Of this system the Barrier and the Grey Ranges are the most important components; they consist of low hills which only occasionally attain an altitude of 2,000 feet above sea level. The central and western plains contain the basins of the Murray and of its tributaries, the chief of which is the Darling, and form the great sheep-rearing district of Australia.

New South Wales possesses over 3,300 miles of railways owned and worked by Government. The provision for education is very complete and Sydney is the seat of a University.

The legislature consists of two chambers. Members of the upper house or legislative council are nominated for life by the Government, the lower house or legislative assembly consists of 90 members elected by a practically universal suffrage which in 1902 was extended to women. Members receive £300 a year and free travelling on the railways.

The most important mineral is coal, which is mainly mined around Newcastle and to the south and west of Sydney. The production in 1903 was 6,354,846 tons, of which a large proportion was consumed in the state. Silver is mainly found in the Barrier Range district in the extreme west, which is connected by rail—not with Sydney—but with Adelaide.

The value of silver and silver-lead ore produced in 1903 was about £1,500,000.

Gold is widely distributed and tin and copper are also worked.

Mining however though of great importance is only fourth in the list of industries. The first three are sheep and cattle farming, agriculture, and manufacturing. Of wool and meat New South Wales produces more than all the other Australian States put together. Horse breeding is extensively carried on, and dairy farming has made rapid progress, while vine growing flourishes all along the coast district. Wheat is the chief agricultural product and is grown mainly on the table lands and on the western slopes of the Dividing Range. Maize is grown in the coast district and the sugar cane in the north.

*Dependencies.*—Norfolk Island and Lord Howe Island are dependencies of New South Wales.

The former is about 900 miles E.N.E. of Sydney; it is the principal of a small group of islands which comprise in all about 12 square miles. Discovered in 1774 by Captain Cook, they remained uninhabited till 1788 when a penal settlement was formed there. This was removed in 1855, and the next year the inhabitants of Pitcairn Island were brought to the group and most of them settled there. In 1901 the population was 827. The chief occupation is agriculture for domestic consumption, but the men take part in the whale fishery. A resident magistrate represents the New South Wales Government and the island is a station of the Pacific cable.

Lord Howe Island which is about half way between Norfolk Island and Sydney is about six miles in length by one in breadth and is mountainous and well wooded, with an equable and delightful climate. It is administered by a visiting magistrate from Sydney. Its population in 1901 was 120.

## VICTORIA.

Victoria is situated at the south-east of Australia; on the north and north-east it is bounded by New South Wales, on the south and south-east by the ocean, and on the west it is separated from South Australia by a line following approximately the 141st meridian of east longitude. Its area is a little less than that of Great Britain and its population is estimated at about 1,210,000. The principal towns are Melbourne (508,540) the capital of the state and the chief town of Australia, situated at the north of Port Phillip Bay, Ballarat (49,202), and Bendigo (42,660), inland gold mining towns to the north-west of Melbourne, and Geelong (25,957), a manufacturing town on a western arm of Port Phillip Bay.

Victoria is traversed from east to west by the Dividing Range, which here runs at about 60—70 miles distance from the coast. The State is thus divided into three parts, the plain sloping north from the mountains to the Murray River, the elevated land traversed by the Dividing Range, and the plain between the mountains and the sea. The eastern portion of the Range is known as the Australian Alps, and in the west it terminates in the Pyrenees and Grampians. The average height is about 3,000 feet, but there are several peaks over 6,000 feet high and covered with snow for several months in the year. Below the snow-line the range is well wooded and the scenery is often very striking.

The rivers fall into two systems, those draining to the Murray, and those south of the Dividing Range which fall into the ocean. Of the former, the Goulburn and the Loddon are the most important. Of those south of the mountains, the Snowy River, Yarra (on the mouth of which is Melbourne), Hopkins and Glenelg are the chief.

From its geographical position, Victoria enjoys a climate far more genial to Europeans than any other state of Australia. Except when north winds occasionally blow, the heat is never oppressive. Rainfall is more regular than in some of the other states and droughts are less severe, and in the districts most affected by them are guarded against by means of irrigation works.

Victoria is well provided with railways, which are owned and worked by the State—the length of lines open being about the same as in the far larger State of New South Wales. Education both elementary and higher are well provided for and Melbourne is the seat of a university.

The legislature consists of two chambers, both elective. In the lower house or legislative assembly which consists of 68 members, separate provision is made for the representation of government servants—one member being elected by the Civil Service and two by the railway servants; and in the upper or legislative council, of the 35 members one is chosen by the public officers and railway servants combined. Members of the legislative council receive no remuneration for their services; members of the assembly are paid £300 a year.

Victoria's chief industries are sheep and dairy farming, agriculture, mining, and manufacturing. Over 2,250,000 acres are devoted to wheat; while oats, barley and potatoes are also grown. A considerable area is devoted to the cultivation of fruit trees and the vine. The total value of the agricultural products of Victoria in 1903 was over £10,000,000, or nearly a quarter more than that of New South Wales, the second agricultural state. There are about 8,750,000 sheep and 1,500,000 cattle.



Manufacturers produce nearly £9,500,000 annually, clothing and textile manufactories employing most hands, followed by those of hardware, food and drink, paper-making and printing.

Victoria is rich in gold bearing rocks and up to the end of 1903 had produced over £266,000,000 worth of gold. The annual production of that metal now remains fairly steady at £3,000,000 to £3,500,000, and employs about 25,000 persons. Tin, copper, and zinc exist but are little worked. Enormous deposits of brown coal exist, though they are little worked. Coal of good quality has however been found and the production is increasing—over 120,000 tons having been raised in 1904.

The chief exports of Victoria, besides wool and gold (which comprise nearly half of the total) are grain and flour, butter, hides, meat, live stock, and tallow. The chief imports are cotton and textiles, sugar, tea, iron and coal. Melbourne does 87 per cent. of the trade, the other principal ports being Geelong, Portland and Warrnambool.

### TASMANIA.

Tasmania, an island lying south of the State of Victoria and separated from it by the 120 miles of Bass Strait, is heart-shaped in outline and in area equal to the mainland of Scotland or a little larger than Ceylon. It has an irregular coast-line with many good harbours. It is very mountainous and picturesque; a high table land containing numerous Alpine lakes fills the middle of the island.

The population in 1901 was 172,475; the aborigines are extinct. The capital is Hobart (population 34,917) on the River Derwent in the south-east of the island; Launceston (21,606) in the north is the second town.

Tasmania is one of the most healthy of British possessions; the climate is cooler and more bracing than in Australia, and the island is not subject to droughts. The fauna and flora are in the main similar to those of Australia. The carnivorous marsupials "wolf" and "devil" are however only found in Tasmania, and several of the birds are peculiar to the island. The forests abound in valuable timber, and the apples and pears which have been introduced are well known for their size and excellence.

There is a university and a complete system of primary education.

The legislature consists of a legislative council of 18 members, and a legislative assembly of 35. Both bodies are elective, and members are paid £100 per annum.

The principal industries are stock-raising, mining and fruit growing. There are about 1,600,000 sheep and 186,000 cattle.

Tasmania is rich in minerals, which are now being extensively worked. Among the Australian States Tasmania is now the largest producer of copper (£485,640 worth in 1903). The value of the tin produced amounted in 1903 to nearly £240,000, while silver was mined to the value of £268,000, and gold to the value of about £250,000. Coal exists, but is not yet much worked.

The principal exports are copper, fruit, silver, potatoes, tin, gold, wool and hides; the chief articles imported are textiles, books, boots, butter and cheese, hardware, tea, sugar and tobacco. Most of the trade is with Victoria.

### QUEENSLAND.

Queensland occupies the north-eastern portion of Australia, it is bounded on the south by New South Wales, on the north and east by the Gulf of Carpentaria, the Torres Strait, and the Pacific Ocean, while it is separated from South Australia by a line which runs along the 141st meridian from its intersection with the 29th parallel to the 26th parallel, thence along the 26th parallel to its intersection with the 138th meridian and thence due north to the Gulf of Carpentaria. Its area is 668,497 square miles or almost twelve times the area of England and Wales. Its population is estimated at about 520,000, exclusive of aborigines. The only large town is Brisbane (population 125,672) about 20 miles up the river of that name.

Queensland, like New South Wales, consists of a coastal belt, a table land region, and a great interior plain district.

The Great Dividing Range runs north and south from Cape York to New South Wales, and here and there sends off spurs to east and west. The highest peak is Mount Bartle Frere (5,438 feet). The rivers fall into four systems—those flowing east into the Pacific, which are short and rapid; those which form the head waters of the Darling and its tributaries; those flowing westward from the Great Dividing Range; and those falling into the Gulf of Carpentaria. The watershed between the two latter systems is formed by high land running west from the Dividing Range in the latitude of the 21st parallel, and known as the Selwyn, Kirby and McKinlay Ranges, though much is only high and open downs. The rivers running westward for the most part lose themselves in the salt lakes of the interior. The eastern coast is in parts high and has many minor indentations—it is fringed throughout by the Great Barrier Reef. The coast line in the Gulf of Carpentaria is more unbroken.

Darling Downs, in the south, is the only district which can be said to possess a temperate climate. The rest of Southern

Queensland as far north as Rockhampton is semi-tropical, while the north of the state is in the torrid zone. Generally speaking the Pacific districts are moist and hot and the west dry and hot, but the heat is less oppressive than in most other places with a similar temperature. The rainfall in the interior is scanty and variable, and droughts do much damage to the stock. In many parts however water is obtainable by sinking artesian wells.

Queensland possesses over 3,000 miles of Government-owned railways. Education is provided by the state, but compulsory attendance has not been strictly enforced.

The legislature consists of a nominated legislative council and an elective legislative assembly. Members of the council are allowed to travel free on the railways, while members of the assembly also receive a salary of £300 a year and an allowance for travelling expenses.

The resources of the state are mainly pastoral and Queensland is still by far the first of the Australian states in cattle breeding. In 1903 it contained about 2,500,000 cattle and 8,400,000 sheep. Agriculture is for the most part confined to the southern part of the state and is mainly carried on by small farmers. The products are of a semi-tropical character suited to the climate. The most important are sugar-cane and maize, while arrowroot, bananas, and other fruits are also grown. Timber is plentiful—over £500,000 worth being worked in 1903.

The mining industry is important. Gold to the value of between £2,500,000 and £3,000,000 is mined annually. The leading mines are situated at Charters Towers in the north, the Rockhampton district in the centre, and the Gympie mines in the south, but there are numerous other fields. Silver, copper and tin are also mined in Queensland, the main district of production being Herberton in the north. The amount of copper raised in 1903 amounted to about £285,000, and of tin, £243,000. Lead, manganese, bismuth, antimony, iron and other metals are also worked to some extent, and about half-a-million tons of coal are mined annually, Queensland making a bad second to New South Wales in the production of this mineral.

The chief exports with their approximate values are wool, (£2,250,000), gold (£2,750,000), sugar (£1,250,000), live stock (£1,500,000), meat (£700,000), butter (£345,000), copper (£235,000), tin (£230,000), hides and skins (£300,000), tallow (£183,000) and green fruit (£135,000). The imports are textiles, alcohol, tea, flour, hardware and machinery. Nearly all the external trade is with the United Kingdom and the other Australasian Colonies.

## SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

The State of South Australia extends from the north to the south of Australia. On the east it is bounded by Queensland, New South Wales and Victoria, on the north and south by the sea, and on the west by the 129th meridian. Its area is 903,690 square miles, or ten times that of Great Britain. Only the south-east portion can however be said to be inhabited, and the total population, exclusive of aborigines, was in 1901 only 362,604. The only large town is Adelaide (population 170,729) situated about five miles from the eastern shore of St. Vincent Gulf and near the mouth of the Murray River.

The coast line on the south, with the exception of the large inlets of Spencer Gulf and St. Vincent Gulf, is little indented, most of it being occupied by the lofty limestone cliffs of the Great Australian Bight. The Murray is the only river of importance which reaches the sea in the south. The northern coast is more irregular and contains the estuaries of several fine rivers.

The state may be divided into three districts—the settled south-eastern portion; the coast country west of these districts as far as the West Australian border and the vast interior plains; and the northern territory.

The northern territory is rich in mineral wealth and contains a large area adapted to the cultivation of tropical products. Port Darwin is the chief port of this district.

The western and central districts consist partly of desert and salt lakes, partly of land suitable for sheep pastures but with too light a rainfall for growing corn. Sheep farming is the main industry.

The settled south-eastern area contains much good agricultural land and this is the chief wheat-growing district of Australia.

South Australia contains no continuous ranges of mountains like those which run through the eastern states, but there are various more or less isolated chains of hills rising out of the vast plain which forms the main portion of the country. The lakes in the interior are mostly salt, and fall into two groups—Lake Amadeus and others in the west, and Lakes Eyre, Torrens, Frome, Gairdner, and Gregory to the north of Spencer Gulf.

In the north the climate is tropical; in the south it resembles that of Southern Italy, and is much drier and hotter than in England.

The legislature consists of a legislative council of 18, and a legislative assembly of 42 members. The members of both houses are elected, and they receive £200 a year as salary.

Agriculture is the most important industry, and wheat the chief article grown—over 1,840,000 acres being under wheat in



1904. Vine growing is an important and progressive industry. 23,210 acres of land were devoted to this purpose in 1904, and 2,625,430 gallons of wine were produced and 686,159 gallons exported. The slopes of the hills produce wines of a full bodied character, similar to those of Spain and Portugal, while those made in the more elevated districts resemble the lighter wines of the Rhine. Raisins and almonds are also grown to a considerable extent.

There were in 1904 about 5,820,000 sheep, 272,000 cattle and 183,481 horses.

South Australia is rich in copper and iron, but the former—of which nearly £23,750,000 worth had been produced by the end of 1903—is the only metal extensively worked. It has played a part in the development of South Australia similar to that of gold in New South Wales, Victoria and Western Australia. The chief mines are Burra Burra (which was worked for thirty years and yielded nearly £4,750,000 worth of metal and £800,000 in dividends), Wallaroo and Moonta. The value of the production of copper in 1903 amounted to £472,000.

### WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

Western Australia comprises nearly one-third of the Australian continent, namely, all that portion to the west of the 129th meridian. Its area is 975,920 square miles or over one-fourth of Europe. With the exception of the northern portion the coast line is very regular and unbroken.

That part of the state lying to the north of the 19th parallel of latitude may be described as mountainous, consisting of alternating high and lower lying plateaux; the highest country here is principally of sandstone formation. The North-west Division and much of the Gascoyne Division is a distinctly mountainous country, the ranges here being principally granite. The north and north-eastern parts of the state contain a large area of good pastoral country. A large proportion of the south-western and southern seaboard is of flat, sandy character, with indications of a recent geological formation, and may be described as a vast forest, principally timbered with jarrah, white and red gums, and karri, most of which timbers are of great commercial value. From some points on the western seaboard settlement has now extended for about 600 miles inland; but, from very complete information furnished by explorers and prospectors, it is apparent that no considerable portion of the interior lying between the 19th and 31st parallels of latitude, and between the 121st and 129th meridians of longitude, is suitable for any class of settlement except in connection with the development of the mineral resources. This area

may be described as a great table land, with an altitude of from one to two thousand feet above sea level, the surface of which consists largely of sand dunes, though in many parts of it there are large areas of clayey soils. Between the 30th parallel of latitude and the Great Australian Bight, much of the country is of limestone formation, and here there are immense areas of grass land, which only await the discovery of subterranean water to make them amongst the most productive areas of the state.

The population is about 251,000 exclusive of aborigines. The chief towns are Perth (49,600) the capital on the Swan River, and Fremantle (25,700) at the mouth of the same river.

The climate, through hot, especially in the north, is healthy, a hot wind from the interior for a few hours now and then in the summer is the only disagreeable feature. The climate of the south-west resembles that of Southern Italy, and the wet season is from May to August. Further north the rainfall is more irregular, with a hot, dry summer, but with the nights fairly cool. In the Kimberley district and extreme north the climate is tropical, the rainy season coming in summer.

Western Australia is the least developed of the Australian states. Until the discoveries of gold during the years 1892-6, which have placed it at the head of Australian gold mining, Western Australia was purely agricultural in character, and its population was insignificant, only amounting in 1893 to 65,000. The sensational finds at Coolgardie in 1892, however, caused a rush of immigrants to the state which has been much opened up and developed in consequence. The main goldfields are situate on the central plateau at a distance from the coast, and the railways accordingly mainly run either from the coast into the interior, or parallel with and not far from the coast. Their total length is about 2,000 miles, most of which are owned and worked by the Government. Education is free and compulsory. The legislature consist of two houses, the legislative council consisting of 30 members, and the legislative assembly of 50 members. Both houses are elective.

During the last ten years gold mining has been the most important industry. The alluvial mines have to a large extent now been worked out, but through the development of the quartz mines with expensive machinery the output of the state has steadily increased, and in 1903 reached nearly £8,750,000. Copper, tin, silver, iron, lead, and coal are also found, but are not yet extensively worked.

Besides mining, wool-growing and the timber trade are important industries. Sheep, of which there are over 2,750,000, are depastured in all parts of the state—the northern parts being particularly favourable for stock of all kinds. The forest area lies mainly in the south-west. West Australian

“jarrah” wood is well known throughout the world for its extraordinary durability, and is in great demand for paving, railway sleepers, and piles for bridges and harbour works. There is a large and increasing export of this timber, of which £654,000 worth was exported in 1904. Sandal wood is still abundant, and on the north-west coast the pearl and shell fisheries are important.

Agriculture, though for a long time neglected, is now receiving more attention; the area under crop is however still small, being less than 250,000 acres in 1903. A considerable quantity of wine is made.

The chief exports are gold, timber, wool, pearls and pearl shells, and hides. The principal imports are clothing, hardware, machinery, tobacco, chemicals, and articles of food and drink, especially tea and sugar.

#### BRITISH NEW GUINEA.

*General Description.*—British New Guinea is composed of the south-east portion of the Island of New Guinea and of a number of adjacent islands. Its total area is about 90,540 square miles. Both the mainland and the majority of the islands are in general mountainous, but the western end of the possession is low and swampy. The country is well watered, and a large proportion is covered with forest.

The climate is warm and favourable to the cultivation of tropical products. Gold is found, and is worked on a small scale; the pearl shell fishery is of some importance, but so far the country is little developed.

The population consists of about 500 Europeans and about 350,000 natives. The latter resemble in some ways the Polynesians; they are still very little civilized.

*History.*—The Island of New Guinea was discovered in 1511 by Antonio de Abrea, and it was touched at by several of the early navigators. The archipelagos lying to the south-east of New Guinea were discovered by French navigators towards the close of the eighteenth century.

The whole island to the west of 141° E. long. is claimed by the Dutch as suzerains of the Sultan of Tidore. The Dutch have established a post on the south coast of New Guinea, which is in charge of a resident. That portion of the island which lies to the eastward of 141° E. long. and to the north of British New Guinea belongs to the German Empire. A government has been established and several industries are being started there. The acquisition by the British Crown of the portion of the island not claimed by Holland was long ad-

vocated by Australian statesmen, and the growing influence of France and Germany in the Pacific Ocean, coupled with the establishment of a penal settlement in the French island of New Caledonia, created some alarm in Australia lest a country lying so near to Australia as New Guinea should pass into the hands of a foreign power. To prevent this from taking place as regards the eastern part of New Guinea, the Government of Queensland annexed it to the Empire on the 4th of April, 1883, but this proceeding was not ratified by the Imperial Government. The Inter-colonial Convention held at Sydney in 1883 passed resolutions urging the annexation of Eastern New Guinea, and undertook to recommend their respective legislatures to provide for defraying a part of the cost of a protectorate if one were established by the Imperial Government. On the Australasian colonies agreeing to guarantee £15,000 a year to meet the cost, a protectorate was proclaimed by Commodore Erskine on the 6th November 1884 over the South-east Coast of New Guinea and the adjacent islands.

At the Colonial Conference held in 1887, the colonies of Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria undertook to guarantee £15,000 a year for ten years for defraying the cost of administering the territory now forming the possession on the understanding that Her Majesty's Sovereignty would be proclaimed over it. By the Queensland British New Guinea Act, 1887, that colony undertook to be responsible for the payment of the £15,000 a year. The territory was annexed to the Crown on 4th September, 1888.

At the end of 1900 the Government of the Commonwealth agreed to take over the possession as a territory of the Commonwealth, and the Federal Parliament agreed to provide towards the expenses of administration a sum not exceeding £20,000 a year.

The future arrangements for the government are dealt with in the Papua Bill introduced in the Commonwealth Parliament in 1906.

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## NEW ZEALAND.

The colony of New Zealand lies in the temperate zone to the south-east of Australia and consists of three principal islands—two large, North Island and South (officially called Middle) Island, and one small, Stewart Island—together with some small islets, mostly uninhabited. The total area of the two main islands is about twice that of England (without Wales). Their total length is 1,100 miles; their breadth is very variable, ranging from 46 to 250 miles, the average being about 140 miles. They are volcanic in origin and highly mountainous; one long chain runs from north to south through both islands; rivers and lakes are numerous and the islands are well watered.

In South Island the mountain range is known as the Southern Alps, it runs near the west coast, and on its slopes are magnificent glaciers surpassing those of Switzerland. The highest peak is Mount Cook, which is a little lower than Mont Blanc. On the east of the range are the fertile Canterbury Plains, the great sheep-farming and wheat-growing district of New Zealand.

In North Island the mountains are lower and more in the centre and east of the Island. The loftiest peak is Ruapehu (9,000 feet), but the most striking is Mount Egmont (8,260 feet) in the south-west corner of the Island, a snow-topped extinct volcano of regular shape and isolated position which overlooks the South Pacific Ocean like a gigantic beacon tower.

Stewart Island, at the extreme end of South Island and separated from it by Foveaux Strait, is about half the size of Cheshire and has a very irregular coast line. It possesses excellent harbours and valuable timber; its permanent population is small, but in summer it is a great tourist resort.

*Climate.*—The climate of New Zealand is temperate and very healthy, it is more equable than that of England and the atmosphere is dry and bracing. As the islands stretch through about 12 degrees of latitude, the mean annual temperature varies considerably from north to south; at Auckland it is nearly the same as at Rome, at Wellington it is nearly the same as at Milan, while at Dunedin it approximates to that of London.

The prevalent winds are north-west and laden with moisture, hence the west coasts have a much heavier rainfall than the east. Unlike Australia, New Zealand never suffers from droughts, and the verdant forests, the steep hills, the deep fiords and the rushing rivers render it one of the most beautiful countries to be found outside the tropics.

*Vegetation.*—The flora of New Zealand is characterised by conifers and ferns. Of the latter, there are numerous species including many tree-ferns. There are many valuable timber trees, the Kauri pine being the best known. Practically all the European fruits and grains have been introduced and flourish.

*Animals.*—The fauna is remarkably different from that of Australia—there are no marsupials, and the largest native mammalia are rats and bats. Even the rats are probably not indigenous but introduced by the Maoris. Unlike Australia again, New Zealand contains no snakes. Birds are numerous, both fossil and living, but out of the 69 families of living land birds, 58 are found nowhere else. As might be anticipated from the great scarcity of mammals, the large carnivorous birds, such as eagles, which usually prey upon such animals, are absent. The most remarkable of the fossil birds is the gigantic moa, 14 feet in height; of living birds, the most peculiar is the apteryx, which is wingless and tailless with feathers resembling hairs.

*Population.*—The population in 1901 was found to be 772,719 exclusive of the natives, who numbered 43,143. The chief towns are Wellington, the capital (population 49,344) at the south end of North Island, Auckland (67,226) in the north of that island, and Christchurch (57,041) and Dunedin (52,390) on the east coast of South Island.

*Aborigines.*—The natives are called Maoris and are a branch of the Polynesian race. Their origin is doubtful, but on ethnological and philological grounds it appears likely that their ancestors once inhabited the plains of Hindustan and were gradually pushed seaward by another race from the north-west. Some of the Indian hill tribes are supposed to represent those who remained in India. The rest seem to have settled in what is now the Malay Archipelago and from those islands they were ejected gradually by the Malay races during the first or second century A.D. One tribe is supposed to have voyaged west and to have settled in Madagascar, where it is now represented by the Hovas. The rest spread eastward over the Pacific, and here we pass from hypotheses founded

solely on ethnology and philology to statements supported also by Maori tradition. There were probably two migrations, and the second seems to have conquered both the aboriginal Melanesians and the Polynesians of the first migration. They reached the Fiji Islands and intermarried with the Melanesians there. Between the tenth and twelfth centuries they conquered the Samoa Islands and spread far and wide over the Pacific, pushing on from archipelago to archipelago. In the fourteenth century, after civil disturbances at home, a section of the inhabitants of "Hawaiki," possibly one of the islands of the Samoa group, migrated to New Zealand and settled mainly in North Island. They speak a very pure dialect of the Polynesian tongue. They are of fine physique and are divided into about twenty different clans analogous to those of the Scottish Highlanders. When first visited by Europeans and for long after they ate the bodies of enemies killed in battle. They are an intelligent people and, unlike the aborigines of Australia, they have played an important part in the history of their country since its discovery by Europeans.

*Character.*—What has been said under "Australia" as to the national type and social aims, applies fully to New Zealand. Here for instance we have a progressive land tax, an absentee tax, and rates on unimproved values, all designed to keep the land in the hands of small farmers.

*History.*—New Zealand was discovered in 1642 by the Dutch navigator Tasman, who did not however land upon its shores. In 1769 it was visited by Captain Cook, who hoisted the British flag on both North and South Islands and took formal possession of them in the name of George III. In his voyages of 1772 and 1777 Captain Cook again touched at the islands.

When in 1787 it was decided to found a Colony in New South Wales, the islands of New Zealand were included as part of the British dominions in the Commission appointing the governor of the new colony. Towards the end of the century, whalers from Sydney began to visit New Zealand and a trade in sealskins and timber grew up. The headquarters of the Europeans were at the Bay of Islands in North Island, and this place gradually became an Alsatia, into which flocked deserted seamen, escaped convicts from Australia, and adventurers of all kinds; while most of the native tribes possessed one or more white men living among them as members of the tribe.

In 1814 missionaries were sent out to New Zealand by the Church Missionary Society, and one of them, Kendall, was appointed by the Government of New South Wales as Resident

Magistrate. At first the progress of the mission was slow, but between 1830 and 1840 Christianity was accepted—at least nominally—by a large proportion of the Maoris. The time however was one of continual unrest; the possession of firearms led to sanguinary tribal wars, and when these failed to supply the demand for tattooed and preserved human heads for export as curiosities to Europe, secret murder made up the deficiency. The state of North Island grew worse and worse as time went on, but for years the missionaries strongly opposed annexation by Great Britain.

In 1825 the first New Zealand Association was formed in London to promote the colonisation of the country. Among its members was Lord Durham. In 1826 it sent out a ship with settlers but the expedition proved a failure, the settlers refused to land and had to be sent back to England. In 1829 the British Government was urged to annex and settle the islands, but the Duke of Wellington told the deputation that waited on him that Great Britain had already colonies enough and refused to take any action.

In 1831 the outrages by Europeans led certain Maori chiefs to petition the British Government for protection and assistance, and in the following year Mr. James Busby, an engineer from New South Wales, was appointed British Resident at the Bay of Islands. Busby, who was not supported by any force, directed his efforts towards establishing a confederation of the native tribes and rather lessened than increased British authority. He was recalled in 1837. The same year saw the revival of the New Zealand Association with Lord Durham, Edward Gibbon Wakefield, and Sir Wm. Molesworth at its head. Negotiations with the Government for the founding of a colony were unsuccessful, but it soon became evident that either Great Britain or France would have to interfere, and in anticipation of annexation crowds of adventurers flocked to New Zealand to secure more or less plausible claims to land. By 1840 it was estimated that claims to nearly a third of the islands had been acquired from the natives.

At last Her Majesty's Government sent out Captain Hobson, R.N., as British Consul, to treat with the natives for the recognition of British sovereignty. He arrived at the Bay of Islands on 29th January 1840. A few days before his arrival—on 22nd January 1840—a party of English colonists sent out under the auspices of the New Zealand Land Company, which had recently been formed by the same group of men who had formed the New Zealand Associations, landed at the south end of North Island on land which had nominally been purchased from the natives by the Company. There they founded the town of Wellington.

Upon arrival at Bay of Islands, Captain Hobson issued a



proclamation refusing to recognise as valid the title to lands purchased from the natives unless derived from or confirmed by the Crown; and he summoned a meeting of chiefs which took place at Waitangi. Here, supported by the missionaries who preferred annexation by England to annexation by France, Captain Hobson induced the Maoris to place themselves under British sovereignty and protection. Great Britain guaranteed the Maoris the possession of their lands, while the chiefs agreed that no land might be sold by the natives to Europeans but that the Crown should be given the exclusive right of purchase. This Treaty of Waitangi was soon signed by over 500 chiefs and British sovereignty over New Zealand was proclaimed on 21st May, 1840—only a few days before the arrival of a French expedition intending to take possession of the country.

The first days of the colony were full of difficulty. Captain Hobson, who had been appointed governor, had in the first place to deal with the New Zealand Land Company's settlements. The first settlement at Wellington had been quickly followed, as additional emigrant ships arrived, by others at Wanganui and New Plymouth on the west coast of North Island, and at Nelson on South Island; and the Maoris disputed the validity of the sale of much of the land which the Company claimed to have purchased. The land system of the Maoris was based upon ownership by the tribe and did not acknowledge the right of an individual to sell any portion of the land of his tribe. A Land Claims Court was established by the Government, but the investigation of the cases of the numerous persons who claimed to have purchased land took several years. Meanwhile—in 1841—New Zealand was proclaimed a separate colony independent of New South Wales, and Captain Hobson who died in 1842 was succeeded by Captain Fitzroy, formerly of the "Beagle." Before the new governor arrived Captain Wakefield, representing the New Zealand Company, attempted to survey some land on the Wairu River in South Island which he claimed to have purchased. The natives resisted both the claim and the survey, and ended by massacring Captain Wakefield and his party—an outrage which went unpunished by the new governor. Captain Fitzroy quickly got involved in serious difficulties, customs duties were first abolished and then reimposed, and on the demand of some of the Maori chiefs the restriction imposed by the Treaty of Waitangi on the sale of land was removed. In 1844 discontent among the natives round the Bay of Islands led to the revolt of Hone Heke. The settlements in the Bay were destroyed and for some time the British, though superior in numbers, had the worst of the campaign. In 1845 however, Captain George Grey arrived from South Australia to replace Fitzroy and took the war vigorously in hand. Assisted by a body of friendly Maoris

the British soon brought Hone Heke's revolt to an end, the chief submitted, and never again did the Maori tribes north of Auckland rise against the British. Captain Grey then turned his attention to the southern portion of the Island and quickly crushed an incipient revolt near Wellington. In 1847 another outbreak took place—this time near Wanganui—but the Maoris soon abandoned the struggle, and for fourteen years there was peace between the two races. In 1847 a number of discharged soldiers were enrolled in England for seven years' service in New Zealand and sent out to the colony with their families. There they were stationed in four settlements round Auckland and this force, which became known as the "New Zealand Fencibles," formed a protection to the capital.

The war over, Sir G. Grey devoted his energies to the development of the colony's resources. The whole of South Island and several districts in North Island were purchased from the Maoris by the Government and thrown open to settlement. Roads were made and immigration began to revive. In 1848 a settlement was founded at Otago, in South Island, by an association consisting of members of the Free Church of Scotland. In 1850 Canterbury was founded by a Church of England association, and the same year saw the dissolution of the New Zealand Association.

In 1852 New Zealand was given representative institutions. This was followed in 1855 by responsible Government. The land however remained under the control of the governor. The constitution was peculiar. There was a general assembly of two chambers, the lower elected and the upper nominated by the Crown. The colony was divided into six (afterwards nine) provinces, and over each was placed a superintendent, elected by the people, with a provincial council similarly elected. The provincial councils were empowered to legislate on certain specified subjects.

In 1853, before the new Constitution which was mainly of his own construction could be set working, Sir G. Grey left New Zealand. As in South Australia his administration had carried the colony through its worst difficulties. The war had been ended, the European population had increased from 12,774 in 1845 to 30,678 in 1853, while in the same period the revenue had risen from £12,899 to £147,820, and the gold discoveries in Australia had created a steady demand for New Zealand produce.

Soon after Sir G. Grey left the colony a movement commenced among the Maoris in North Island in favour of the establishment among themselves of a more or less autonomous form of local government and the prevention of any further alienation of the tribal lands, and generally for the preservation of the Maori race. In 1858 after some years of discussion a confedera-

tion of chiefs dwelling in the centre of the Island elected one of their number as "King." The so-called "King movement" was not at first opposed by the Government, but the latter, by ignoring the native aspirations and failing to recognise as formerly the tribal rights in the land, alienated the Maoris, and a long straggling and costly war was the result. This second Maori War, which broke out in 1860 and with short interludes in 1863 and 1865 lasted till 1870, commenced in the Taranaki district in consequence of the sale to Government of some land by an individual chief, whose action was forcibly opposed by his neighbours assisted by the "King" tribes. The military operations for the most part consisted in attacks by British troops, largely superior in numbers to the enemy, on strongly fortified "pahs," and in guerilla fighting, in both of which the Maoris proved formidable antagonists, though the numbers of them engaged in the operations was small and many of the chiefs supported the British. In 1864 the strife was revived and accentuated by the rise of a new and militant religion called Hau Hauism, whose votaries believed themselves to be invulnerable; and after 1865 the contest was mainly confined to these fanatics and the loyal natives, by whom the former were finally put down.

During a large part of the war, Sir G. Grey had again been governor of the colony. He was re-appointed in 1861 and retired in 1866. He settled down in New Zealand, and was elected to the assembly in 1875. He held the post of Prime Minister from 1877 to 1879 as the leader of a democratic policy.

During the ten years of war the administration of native affairs had been handed over to the Colonial Ministers (1862) the seat of Government had been shifted to Wellington (1864), rich alluvial gold fields had been discovered in South Island, while gold-bearing reefs had been found in the province of Auckland. The war did not directly affect South Island, and during its progress both the population and the revenue trebled. The history of New Zealand during the last 35 years has been one of rapid development with the aid of borrowed money and democratic legislation. The former was most characteristic of the first decade, the latter of the last fifteen years, while the eighties saw a period of financial depression. The provincial councils were abolished in 1875 and the constitution was thus assimilated to the ordinary type. A feature of the political history has been the long continuance in power of particular groups of men—one Ministry continuing in office, with only three short periods of opposition, from 1869 to 1890, when it was succeeded by the Liberal Ministry which has remained in office up to the present time (1906).

*Constitution.*—At the head of the Administration is the governor who is assisted by an executive council, composed of the responsible Ministers of the colony for the time being in accordance with the ordinary practice of responsible government.

The legislature consists of two houses, a legislative council and a House of Representatives. The legislative councillors are nominated by the executive, and up to 1891 held their seats for life. Under the Act passed in that year future appointments are, however, to be for seven years only. They receive travelling expenses, and, subject to deductions if avoidably absent for more than five sittings a session, a salary at the rate of £200 a year.

The members of the House of Representatives are elected on an adult franchise, women as well as men being allowed to vote. The house now consists of 80 members, including four Maori members elected by the natives. Members of the lower house receive salary at the rate of £300 a year with deductions and travelling expenses as in the case of legislative councillors.

*Industry and Resources.*—The chief industries of New Zealand are sheep-farming, agriculture and mining. In 1903 there were about 19,000,000 sheep in the colony, and the value of the wool exported amounted to over £4,000,000. Frozen meat, mostly mutton, is exported to the value (in 1903) of nearly £3,200,000. Butter, skins and tallow are also exported in large quantities. The exports of agricultural produce consists mainly of oats and phormium (or New Zealand hemp). Timber is also largely exported.

The chief minerals worked are gold, Kauri gum and coal. Gold was first discovered in New Zealand in 1852, and during the years 1857—1860 some £150,000 worth was won in the province of Nelson. In 1861 however, rich finds were made in the Otago province of South Island, and in 1863 no less than £2,000,000 worth was exported from these fields. In 1865 gold was found in large quantities on the west coast of South Island and soon after, the precious metal was discovered in North Island on the north-east coast. Up to 1871 the value won amounted to over £2,000,000 a year, but after that date the production of gold declined owing to the exhaustion of the alluvial deposits. In 1894 the production was only about £888,000 but recently it has increased to double that amount owing to the application of more modern methods of quartz mining and to river dredging.

Kauri gum, of which over £11,250,000 worth had by 1902 been raised in New Zealand, is the resin of the Kauri pine



and is found in the Auckland district by digging on the sites of old Kauri forests.

The production of coal is steadily increasing. In 1902, 1,362,702 tons were mined, most of which was consumed in the colony. The best mines are on the west coast of South Island and in the Otago district.

Silver, iron, petroleum, and phosphates are also found.

The total value of the exports in 1903 amounted to over £15,000,000; that of the imports to nearly £13,000,000.

The chief articles imported are apparel, boots and shoes, cotton piece goods, drapery, fruits, hardware, iron, machinery oils, paper, spirits, sugar, tea, tobacco, and woollen goods. They are obtained almost entirely from England, Australia, the United States, and China,

Manufacturing is steadily growing, and in 1901 employed nearly 50,000 hands.

#### DEPENDENCIES..

The following groups of islands, though separated from New Zealand by a wide extent of sea, have been annexed to New Zealand :—

The Chatham Islands, Bounty Island, Antipodes, Auckland and Campbell Islands to the south-east and south of New Zealand. The first named is used for the breeding of sheep and cattle, the others are uninhabited.

The Kermadec Islands, about 500 miles north-east of New Zealand.

The Cook Islands, and others still further to the north-east. These were annexed in 1901. They have a population of about 12,000. Copra, bananas, oranges and cocoa-nuts are their main products.



## FIJI AND THE WESTERN PACIFIC.

Of the innumerable islands of volcanic or coral formation which dot the central and western parts of the Pacific Ocean, a large proportion belong to Great Britain.

Of these, some have, as already stated, been annexed to New Zealand. Of the remainder the most important are the Fiji Islands, which became a British colony in 1874. The others, which comprise the southern Solomon Islands, the Gilbert and Ellice Islands, the Tonga or Friendly Islands, etc., are under British protection, and are subject to the jurisdiction of the High Commissioner for the Western Pacific, who is also Governor of Fiji. Pitcairn Island, one of the easternmost of these islands, though placed under the jurisdiction of the High Commissioner, is a British colony by settlement. Discovered in 1767, it remained uninhabited until 1780, when it was occupied by the mutineers of H.M.S. *Bounty* with some women from Otaheite. Nothing was known of their existence until the island was visited in 1808. No regular government was established, but assistance of various kinds was given on the subsequent visits of English vessels. In 1856, the population having become too large for the resources of the island, the inhabitants (192 in number) were at their own request removed with all their possessions to Norfolk Island. Forty of them however soon returned, and the present population numbers about 140.

## FIJI.

The colony comprises the Fiji Group and Rotumah. The principal islands of the former are Viti Levu (4,112 square miles) which contains the capital Suva (population 1,073), and Vanua Levu (2,432 square miles). The total area of the colony including Rotumah (14 square miles), is 7,435 square miles, or a little larger than Wales.

The more important islands are mountainous and volcanic, rising more or less abruptly from the shore to a height of 4,000 to 4,500 feet. The hills are bold and picturesque, for the most part composed of old lavas. Upon the south-eastern or windward sides the islands are covered with dense forests of

tropical vegetation. The lower lands are more lightly timbered and apparently have all been under cultivation at a not distant period when the native population was much larger. The soil is deep and rich, and the country is well watered. The leeward sides of the larger islands consist of grassy hills and plains dotted with clumps of casuarina and screw pines.

Iron ore is found in considerable quantities but is not worked. Traces of gold, silver, antimony, manganese, and other metals have been found.

Fiji is rich in harbours and roadsteads as well as in rivers. Each island is surrounded by a barrier reef of coral which forms a natural breakwater, pierced only by a few openings which are generally found opposite the mouths of the more important rivers.

The climate of Fiji is cool for the tropics, and the country is remarkably free from zymotic and endemic diseases. Dysentery is the only disease to which Europeans are peculiarly liable.

The Fijians belong to the darker of the two great Polynesian families, but living on the confines of the fairer race their blood has received considerable admixture. They are a tall, muscular and well-formed race, with frizzly hair. They were once cannibals. The population of the colony, as ascertained at the census of 1901, was 120,124, and appears to be decreasing. Of these over 17,000 were natives of India, whose presence is due to indentured immigration, by which the labour required for the sugar plantations is now largely supplied.

The property of the natives is preserved by their lands being made inalienable, and a system of paying taxes in kind has worked successfully.

*History.*—The islands were discovered by Tasman in 1643, and visited by Captain Cook in 1769. In 1835 missionaries settled in Fiji, and after a time met with great success. In 1859 Thakombau, the most powerful chief of Fiji, offered the sovereignty of the Islands to Great Britain, but the offer was declined by the Duke of Newcastle. About that time the scarcity of cotton caused by the civil war in the United States of America led to an influx of Europeans into Fiji for the purpose of cotton cultivation. In 1871 certain Englishmen set up a Fijian Government, with Thakombau as King. A constitution was agreed upon, and a Parliament elected. But the Parliament and the Government soon quarrelled, and the Ministry came to govern without the aid of Parliament.

The question of annexing Fiji had been agitated both in Australia and England since 1869 on many grounds and in 1874, after negotiations with the chiefs, Sir H. Robinson, the

Governor of New South Wales was able to report the cession of the sovereignty of the Islands by Thakombau and the other principal chiefs. Shortly after the Islands were erected into a separate colony. The constitution is of the Crown colony type, the legislative council consisting of ten official, six elected and two native members. The natives enjoy a large share of self-government based on their old customary village and district councils, and their treatment by the Colonial Government has been liberal and sympathetic.

*Products and Industries.*—The trade and commerce of the colony depends for its existence on three staple industries, viz., (1) the cultivation, manufacture, and export of sugar; and (2) of copra (the dried kernel of the cocoa-nut); and (3) the growth and export of fruit, principally bananas and pineapples.

The principal exports at the date of the annexation of the colony were copra, cotton (Sea Island), and maize, but the export of maize was soon displaced by that of sugar. Cotton continued to be the third export in point of value until the year 1882, after which it gradually subsided until the year 1888, when only  $3\frac{1}{2}$  tons were exported. In the meantime the fruit trade with the neighbouring Australasian colonies had arisen, after the establishment, through Government subsidy, of regular steam communication with Sydney and Auckland.

The export of fruit consists almost entirely of bananas and pineapples, but there is a small export of oranges, limes, lemons and citrons.

The other principal exports consist of:—Colonial distilled spirit, bêche-de-mer, turtle-shell, pea-nuts, maize, and pearl shells.

Minor exports consist of gum, molasses, wool, yams, tea, cocoa-nuts, vanilla.

The cultivation of a superior class of tobacco, specially adapted for use as cigar wrappers, is being entered on by Europeans. The growth of rice has also been commenced, and the cultivation of sugar cane is being extended.

About 90 per cent. of the trade of the colony is with the Australian colonies and New Zealand. There is no direct communication with the United Kingdom, and all trade between Fiji and Great Britain consequently passes through those colonies.



## ROTUMAH.

Rotumah, situate near the Fiji group, was discovered by the *Pandora* in 1793, when searching for the mutineers of the *Bounty*. In 1879 the three principal Rotumah chiefs offered the Islands to Great Britain, and they were annexed in 1881. The population was found at the census of 1901 to number 2,230. The principal island is seven miles long by three miles broad, and contains about 9,000 acres. The staple export is copra, of which about 300 tons is shipped annually.

A European Commissioner resides on the island, and is, under the Governor of Fiji, the chief executive and judicial authority in Rotumah.



## 4.—AFRICA.

## SOUTH AFRICA.

The coast line of South Africa is remarkably unbroken, containing few harbours or inlets. This, no doubt, contributed to the difficulties which retarded the progress of civilisation in South Africa. The ground usually rises rapidly from the coast till it reaches a mountain range running fairly parallel to the sea, and beyond this there is a high table land. The winds from the sea lose a great deal of their moisture when they come into contact with coast mountains, and the rainfall is, therefore, small, and in some places the land is practically desert, not a tree or a shrub being seen over enormous plains.

The rivers are numerous but are mostly mere mountain torrents, deep and wide after rains, but almost dry at other times.

The country on the whole is marked by the absence of water and trees, and by rocky mountains and stony valleys. There is, however, abundance of grassy land, and this, with the generally even and temperate climate, makes South Africa well suited for the raising of cattle.

South Africa now depends almost wholly, as far as her over-sea trade is concerned, on the gold raised in the Transvaal. The agriculture is substantially confined to supplying local wants, and with the exception of wool, little but gold and diamonds is exported.

*Climate.*—The climate, of course, varies in so vast an extent of territory. There is little fever in the south, where there is a coast climate—warm, moist, and equable—and towards the north, although malarial fever is very prevalent in the low-lying districts, the high lands are bracing and healthy, and in many places well adapted for persons suffering from phthisis. Heat and dryness are the general characteristics of the interior. The thermometer reaches 105° at such places as Kimberley and Bloemfontein. July is the coldest month, and December, January, and February the hottest. The rainfall is most abundant in the summer, when the south-east winds are prevalent.

*Natives.*—The population is a very mixed one. The Dutch, or Boers, are descended from the original European settlers.

The *Hottentots* are the aborigines. They are short, with slight limbs, prominent cheek-bones, and a yellowish brown skin. They make good shepherds and herdsmen, and are faithful and honest. They belong more to the western than to the eastern side of the Cape.

The *Bushmen* probably belong to the Hottentot race. They inhabit the most sterile part of the colony, and are hunters rather than shepherds.

The *Kaffirs* have come from more northern territories. The name is Arabic, meaning "unbeliever," and is given by the Arabs to all non-Mahommedans. They are a tall and handsome race, of the Bantu family, which includes the Zulus and Basutos. Their hair is tufted like the Hottentot, while their lips are thick like the negro.

The political treatment of the natives varies curiously in the South African States. In the Cape the Kaffirs are admitted to the franchise on equal terms with the whites—*i.e.*, with a low property and educational qualification. Natal adopted the same principle in theory, though in practice the Kaffirs are excluded from substantial participation. The two Dutch Republics gave no rights to the natives, and by the terms of peace this position is for the present maintained in the new colonies.

*Vegetation.*—In climate and soil South Africa resembles Australia, but in flora it is far richer. Cape Colony alone yields twelve thousand species of plants, a far greater number than are found in the whole of Europe; they consist largely of bulbous plants and heaths. The forests are limited to the seaward ranges of the hills; but they yield several valuable hard woods, including boxwood. Wheat, the vine, and all European vegetables and fruits prosper wherever there is sufficient water, but this is the great want, and beyond the coast belt agriculture can rarely succeed without irrigation. It has been declared that a great scheme of irrigation is practicable, and would eventually make South Africa the granary of the world.

*Animals.*—The indigenous animals are very numerous and varied, but many of them are fast disappearing owing to the spread of civilisation. The elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, lion, leopard, panther, cheetah, hyæna, jackal, wolf, quagga, zebra, buffalo, antelope, ant-eater, and a multitude of other wild animals, are met with in the unsettled parts. The African elephant, unlike the Indian, has never been domesticated in modern times.

There is plenty of game—deer, hares, pheasants and partridges—in the southern parts.

The most abundant animals in South Africa are antelopes, of which there are many species. The spring-buck is one of the most graceful of animals. It leaps to the height of six or seven feet. It is about as large as a goat, and lives in immense herds on the deserts.

The eland, or cape elk, is as large as an ox, five feet high at the shoulder. Its flesh is more prized than that of any other wild animal of South Africa.

The gnu is a very wild species, about the size of an ass, and with the neck, body, and tail of a horse.

The hartebeeste is the most common of all the large antelopes. It lives in large herds, and is the favourite object of pursuit among the natives and colonists.

In Cape Colony the secretary bird and the ostrich are numerous. The former, which is about as big as a turkey, is so called from a tuft of plumes on the back of its head; it is so useful in the destruction of reptiles that the natives do not kill it, as the Egyptians did not kill the ibis, and it is now protected by law.

*Communications.*—The long inland distances require long railways, and great energy has been shown in constructing them: the extensions of the lines will be one of the principal objects of administration for a long time to come. In 1873 only 63 miles were open in Cape Colony; in 1904 there were 2,664; these consist of three systems, the Western, Midland and Eastern. The first system starts from Cape Town, and runs to Vryburg (774 miles), at Vryburg the line is continued by the Rhodesia railways along the western side of the Transvaal to Bulawayo (588 miles), and proceeds from there to the Victoria Falls (282 miles). From Bulawayo there is also a railway running eastwards, viâ Salisbury, to Beira on the Portuguese coast. The Midland system runs from Port Elizabeth to the Orange River Colony and the Transvaal. The Eastern system starts from East London, and also runs to the Orange River Colony and Transvaal. In Natal there are 775 miles of railway, the main line running from Durban to the capital, Pietermaritzburg, and thence to the Transvaal (306 miles). The Transvaal lines at the beginning of the war were 717 miles long, connecting the Rand and Pretoria with the Cape and Orange River systems, and with Natal and Delagoa Bay. In 1905 there were 1,128 miles open in the Transvaal, and 369 were under construction.

From Cape Town to Johannesburg the distance by rail is 1,014 miles; from Durban, 483; and from Delagoa Bay, 396. These long distances render the carriage of goods to the Transvaal and Rhodesia costly, and thus add greatly to the expense of living. A large proportion of the food required is imported,



and the steamship charges are added to those of the railways. Much discontent has been caused by the heaviness of these expenses, and a conference was held in London in 1905 to consider whether reduction could be obtained in the sea charges, but nothing resulted for the time. The sea charges (for a distance of some 7,000 miles), are not the main matter, as generally speaking they are much less than half the railway charges, which must always be considerable. In Rhodesia it is estimated that the cost of transport is equivalent to about three-quarters of the value of the imports. Probably the remedy for the heavy cost of living will be found eventually in the development of farming, gardening and dairying.

*History*—Some four hundred years before the cutting of the Suez Canal opened up a shorter route to India, the Portuguese found their way round the Cape of Good Hope, and anchored their ships under Table Mountain to obtain fresh water and food. Then—as to a great extent still for naval purposes—the Cape was the half-way house to India. After them came the Dutch East India Company, who, in turn gave way to the English (see under Cape Colony). In the year before that of Waterloo we held the whole of the Cape. But at that time the colony was little more than what it had been from the first—a port of call. The country by the sea, as generally elsewhere in Africa, was not inviting to adventurers and traders on their way to the thronged and opulent East. The European population was only about 25,000, and was to a great extent supported by our fleets calling there on the voyage to India. Wool was the staple export, largely helped by ostrich feathers, of which half a million pounds' worth was sent out annually. About thirty-five years ago a source of enormous riches was found in the diamonds on the farm of a Dutchman named De Beer in Griqualand, in the north of the colony.

The area of Cape Colony is as big as that of the German Empire. The extended area results from the sterile character of much of the country forcing the farmers to push their way for long distances from the coast. This gradual progress continually brought the settlers into conflict with the Kaffirs, and several wars broke out. There were also difficulties between the English and the Boers, or descendants of the old Dutch settlers. The latter did not share the views of the former as to the rights of the natives, and soon after the abolition of slavery in 1834 they "trekked" northwards, a movement which ended in the formation of the Transvaal, or South African Republic.

Natal is an off-shoot of the Cape Colony and of comparatively small size. To the north is the country of the Zulus, who, under Cetywayo, destroyed the British troops at Isandhlwana, and were subsequently defeated at Ulundi.

North of the Transvaal lies the country of the Zambesi, which Livingstone explored some fifty years ago. A large part of it was taken possession of at a critical period by the British South Africa Company, and now, under the name of Rhodesia, forms a valuable dependency between north and south, through which it is hoped some day will run a "Cape to Cairo" railway.

The history of each colony is given under each head. The late war, which resulted in the annexations of the South African Republic (Transvaal) and the Orange Free State, is described under Transvaal. It has left for future settlement many great questions, and it can hardly be anticipated that the cleavage between the two white races—English and Boer—will for a long time to come cease to be the chief factor in South African politics. The war, however, absolutely ended the physical conflict. Not a single crime of violence followed the peace settlement. The two races are practically equal in numbers. They are now in closer personal contact, and as the constructive work of government proceeds their interests will become more and more identical.

It is hoped that both parties will work together for the prosperity of the common country. The grant of responsible government to the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony, will, no doubt, take place at no distant date, and beyond this there looms the vision of a federated South Africa.

On 23rd March, 1903, a customs agreement was signed, under which the Transvaal and Southern Rhodesia entered the Customs Union, the result being that a common tariff was established for all the South African colonies. All transit dues were abolished, and considerable reductions were made in through railway rates. The list of South African products which are carried over the railways at preferential rates—this constituting a second line of protection—was reduced from 110 to 58 articles. A rebate is granted on articles manufactured in the United Kingdom of 25 per cent. of the duty in certain cases, and of the whole duty in those cases where it is  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. *ad valorem* (ironmongery, etc.); a similar rebate may be made to any British colony giving equivalent reciprocal privileges to the Union.

#### CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

The Cape of Good Hope, strictly speaking, is a small promontory near the south-west extremity of the continent of Africa. But the extensive colony of the name is bounded by the Atlantic and the Southern or Indian Oceans on the west and south; it is bounded on the north to the west of longitude

22° by the Orange River, on the north-east by the Orange River Colony and Natal, and on the north-west by German South West Africa. The Cape Colony contains an area of 276,995 square miles, being over five times that of England.

Numerous territories have been incorporated of late years with the Cape, usually as the result of outbreaks of the native tribes. An outlying possession is Walfisch Bay, a good harbour situated on the west coast and surrounded by German territory.

The country rises from the sea by three terraces, beyond which are a series of mountains, with elevations up to 11,000 feet, running parallel with the coast at a distance from it of about 150 miles. On the third terrace lies the "Great Karroo," an arid and treeless table land covering 48,000,000 acres and supporting 5,000,000 sheep. In this district little rain falls (9 inches a year), but the land possesses a latent fertility which shows itself in brilliant flowers and countless "sheep bushes," after rain. The mountain ranges are intersected by "kloofs," or deep ravines, through which rivers find their way. On the east side there are open grassy tracts, undulating, treeless and sun-scorched, but better watered than the "Karoo" and of the general type of the "veldt" of South Africa.

The Orange River (so named by the Dutch in honour of the House of Orange), which forms the northern boundary of the colony, is the largest in South Africa and is about 1,000 miles long, but it does not possess enough depth of water to be navigable. Most of the rivers flow only after heavy rains, and the irrigation of the country is now an urgent question.

The harbours are not naturally good, but extensive works have been carried out and are still proceeding at the capital, Cape Town, at Table Bay, and further east at Port Elizabeth and East London.

*Population.*—At the census of 1904 the total population of the colony was found to be 2,409,804, comprising 1,218,940 males, and 1,190,864 females. The population according to race was: Europeans, 579,741; Malays, 15,682; Hottentots, 91,260; Fingoes, 310,720; Kaffirs, 1,114,067; and other coloured persons, 298,334.

*History.*—In 1486 Bartholomew de Diaz, a Portuguese commander, landed in Algoa Bay. Vasco de Gama doubled the Cape eleven years later. British ships visited the Cape in 1591, and about 1602 the Dutch made it a place of call. In 1620 two English East Indian commanders took possession of the Cape in the name of Great Britain; but no settlement was formed. In 1652 J. A. Van Riebeck, duly commissioned by the "Chamber of Seventeen" at Amsterdam, landed at Table Bay accompanied by 100 persons, and took possession of what is

now the site of Cape Town on behalf of the Dutch East India Company. At the time of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, the European population received a slight addition of French Protestants, but their descendants have not maintained any distinctive position in the country. The rule of the Dutch East India Company proved very distasteful to the burghers, who were continually prompted to move further and further from the seaboard. In 1795, Holland having yielded to the French Revolutionary Government, an English force proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope to secure it against the French for the Prince of Orange, but the Governor refused to obey the mandate of the Prince, and the British force thereupon proceeded to take possession. By the Peace of Amiens the Cape of Good Hope was restored to the Batavian Republic, and evacuated in 1803, but it was recaptured, when war with France again broke out, by a British Force in 1806, and at the General Peace of 1814 it was ceded in perpetuity to the British Crown. During the interval between the Peace of Amiens and the recapture by the British in 1806, the colony had made rapid progress. In 1820 Parliament voted a sum of £50,000 to promote emigration to the Cape, and 4,000 British immigrants were brought to the Colony and settled in the eastern districts. In the period 1834-1850 three serious wars took place with the Kaffirs, who on each occasion were subdued, with resulting extensions of the colonial boundaries.

In 1836 began what is called the trekking of a part of the Dutch or Boer population. This remarkable movement, which resulted in the colonisation of Natal, the Free State, and the Transvaal, may be ascribed to several causes, of which the chief was dislike of the policy of Great Britain in relation to slavery and the Native question. The Boers resented the refusal of His Majesty's Government to annex certain territories after victories over the Kaffirs, and the mode in which compensation had been made to them for the loss of their slaves under the Imperial Act abolishing slavery, namely, by orders for payment payable in London, which they could only dispose of on the spot at an enormous discount.

The years 1849 and 1850 were years of continued excitement, owing to the proposals of the Government at home to send convicts to the Cape. In view of the agitation, carried almost to the point of active resistance, the project was abandoned. In 1856 the German Legion, which had been formed during the Crimean war, was brought to the Cape, and the men, numbering 2,300, disposed in selected spots on the frontier for defensive purposes.

Responsible government was granted in 1872.

One of the most important events in the recent economical and social history of the Cape has been the discovery of



diamonds beyond the Orange River, in the territory known as Griqualand West. The first diamond was discovered by accident in 1867. In 1903 diamonds to the value of about £5,000,000 were exported. The town of Kimberley is the headquarters of the business, so called, like the gold district of the same name in Western Australia, after the Earl of Kimberley, Secretary of State for the Colonies.

*Industries.*—The chief industries are the production of wool, wine, wheat, barley, oats, tobacco, and maize, and the breeding of horses, cattle, goats, ostriches, and sheep. The temperate and even climate is very favourable for all these purposes. The wheat of the colony is not surpassed in quality by any grown elsewhere. Valuable forests cover large areas, and are extensively worked. Those reserved to the Crown cover an estimated area of about 250,000 acres. The chief exports are diamonds, wool, copper ore, ostrich feathers, gold, mohair, hides and skins. The chief imports are textiles, leather, sugar, coffee, wheat, flour, oils, tobacco, wine, whiskey, wood, timber, hardware, explosives, and machinery.

A large amount of wine is produced, and is almost all consumed locally.

Ostrich breeding is carried on largely. Artificial incubation of ostrich eggs has been successfully introduced in many districts.

In 1860 the export of ostrich feathers was 2,287 lbs.; in 1904, it amounted to 470,381 lbs., valued at over £1,000,000.

The export of wool had risen from 23,172,785 lbs. in 1860, to 79,327,850 lbs. in 1902, valued at £1,930,227.

Guano is found on the various islets along the coast; the industry is under Government control. The quantity collected for the season of 1903 was 4,878 $\frac{3}{4}$  tons.

## NATAL.

The Colony of Natal derives its name from its discovery by Vasco da Gama, the celebrated Portuguese navigator, on Christmas Day, 1497. It lies on the south-east coast of Africa, about 800 miles from the Cape of Good Hope, and between the 26th and 32nd parallels of S. lat. It is bounded on the north by the Portuguese possessions and the Transvaal, on the west by the Orange River Colony and Basutoland, and on the south by the Cape Colony. It comprises an area of 35,306 square miles. It is a well-watered country, no less than thirty-five distinct rivers running into the Indian Ocean in the 376 miles of coast. Unfortunately none of them are navigable. The fall of water is largely caused by the Drakensburg mountains which bar the

moisture-laden breezes of ocean from passing further inland; from this and the fertility of the soil Natal has earned the name of the "Garden Colony." The capital, Pietermaritzburg, has a population of 34,000; the largest town and only port is Durban, with 70,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are natives and 15,000 Indians.

About 84 per cent. of the inhabitants are Zulu natives, and about 7·6 per cent. are Indian coolies. The Europeans number 82,542, or 7·9 per cent., of whom about 12,000 are Dutch, the rest being chiefly British, with the exception of about 1,500 colonists of German descent.

There are 762 miles of railway open, nearly all constructed and worked by the Government.

*History.*—No permanent settlement of Europeans took place in this country till 1837, when a large body of Dutch Boers from the Cape Colony, taking offence at restrictions placed on them by the British Government in regard to their coloured servants, migrated to Natal. Many of them were treacherously murdered by Dingaan, then Zulu chief, the murderer of, and successor to, his brother Chaka. For two years the Zulus and the Boers waged war with varied success; but in 1839 the Dutch obtained a decisive victory. Owing chiefly to these disturbances, the Governor of the Cape decided to take military possession of the district, and sent a force which eventually subdued the Boers.

The Zulus are a warlike tribe who, in the beginning of the century, under Chaka, pressed southwards, and became consolidated into a powerful and well-organised kingdom. Chaka was murdered and succeeded by Dingaan in 1828, who came into conflict with the emigrant Dutch, by whom he was deposed in 1839, in favour of his brother Panda, who was succeeded by Cetywayo. The relations between Cetywayo and Natal during the first years of his reign were not unfriendly, but in 1878 a difficult boundary dispute arose, and Cetywayo was required to comply with the decision of Sir B. Frere, the High Commissioner in South Africa, and also to introduce some modification of his administration, especially as regards military service, and to surrender certain refugees from Natal, and pay a fine for harbouring them, and for border outrages by his subjects.

The king not having complied, the enforcement of the demands was confided to Lieut.-General Lord Chelmsford, whose forces advanced into Zululand in three columns (1879). On the 22nd of January two engagements were fought; one at Isandhlwana, the other at Inyesane; the former with disastrous results to the British. On the same night part of the Zulu impi attacked the commissariat and

hospital post of Rorke's Drift, held by one company of the 24th Regiment. The post was without defences; but the officer in command, Lieut. Chard, R.E., V.C., with great rapidity and skill, converted the stores themselves into a defence, and throughout the whole night the little garrison, behind a flimsy rampart of rice bags and biscuit boxes, successfully maintained an heroic defence.

The military power of the Zulu kingdom was finally broken to pieces at the battle of Ulundi, and Cetywayo fled to the bush with a few followers. The people accepted their defeat with singular calmness, at once returning to their usual avocations. Chief after chief submitted, and Cetywayo himself was captured. The dynasty of Chaka was deposed, and the country was divided into thirteen districts, each under an independent chief, holding office by the gift of the Queen of England, subject to certain conditions accepted by him; a British resident was appointed to reside in Zululand, and be the adviser of the chiefs and channel of communication between them and the British Government.

Difficulties were soon experienced in working this arrangement. Some of the chiefs quarrelled and fought with one another and with their subjects, many of whom refused to recognise their authority; while a large and influential party were anxious for the restoration of Cetywayo, who was reinstalled in 1883. He was, however, driven out by his enemies, who were themselves in turn defeated by his party with the help of some Boers. As a reward for this service the Boers received a grant of land, in which they established the "New Republic."

Finding that the Zulu people were unable to form any orderly administration of the remaining territory, Her Majesty's Government decided, with the general assent of the Zulus, to declare their country to be British territory, which was done in 1887. A disturbance occurred soon after in connection with an attempt to set up a son of Cetywayo as king, but it was checked. Recently (1906) there was another outbreak, caused partly by the collection of taxes, viz., a hut-tax of 14s., and a poll-tax (on men not paying the hut-tax) of 20s.

In 1895 a British Protectorate was declared over the territory of Amatongaland, which is about 1,200 square miles in area, and is bounded on the north by Portuguese possessions, on the west and south by Zululand, and on the east by the Indian Ocean.

In 1897, Zululand was annexed to Natal.

When war broke out in October, 1899, between the Transvaal and Orange Free State on one side and Her Majesty's Government on the other, Natal was invaded by the Boer forces. The first important engagement took place at Dundee, the

Boers being repulsed by an advanced British force under Sir W. Penn Symons, who was mortally wounded. The British troops, under General Yule, then fell back upon Ladysmith, and rejoined the main army of defence under Sir G. White, who, in the meantime, had gained a decided victory over a Boer commando at Elandslaagte. Ladysmith was invested by a largely superior Boer army on the 28th October, but was relieved by the British forces under Sir R. Buller at the end of February, 1900, and the Boers were cleared out of Natal in the course of the following few months, the British advancing into the Transvaal, where Lord Roberts was already operating with an invading army. It was not, however, until the signature of the terms of surrender by the Boer leaders on the 31st May, 1902, that peace was generally restored throughout South Africa, and that Natal was relieved from all further danger from the Boer forces remaining in the field up to that date.

*Climate.*—The climate varies, but is usually mild, cool, and bright. On the coast it is semi-tropical.

The rainy season is from October to March inclusive, during which thunderstorms are frequent and severe. There is no malaria in the colony. The death rates at Pietermaritzburg and Durban for 1903 were 17·51 and 14·79 per thousand respectively.

*Industry.*—The chief exports are wool, sugar, tea, hides, skins, horns, coal, maize, hair, wattle bark, fruit and tobacco.

The harbour of Durban, which has a bar at its entrance, has been much improved by the works of the Harbour Department, and by dredging. The largest ships are now able to come in and go out at all times with perfect safety. The main industry of the colony is agriculture, large numbers of cattle and sheep being reared, and large crops of maize and sugar raised. The land under cultivation amounted in 1903 to 768,268 acres.

The coal-mining industry is one that is increasing every year. The present output is at the rate of about 800,000 tons per annum. The value of coal at the pit's mouth is about 12s. a ton.

#### ORANGE RIVER COLONY.

The Orange River Colony lies to the north of the Orange River and Cape Colony, and to the south of the Vaal River. On the east it is bounded by Basutoland and Natal. The area is about 50,000 square miles, and the country, which lies at an altitude of 4,000 to 5,000 feet above the sea, consists chiefly of grassy plains; but to the east on the Basutoland border, it is



hilly. The rainfall is moderate. The population in 1890 was 207,503, of whom 77,716 were white.

*History.*—The Orange River was first crossed by a European in 1760, but no attempt was made to settle the country for many years after. Emigrants from the Great Trek established themselves at Winburg and elsewhere, but the Colonial Government for some time made no attempt to establish any administration. In 1848, however, owing to the disputes between the settlers and the natives, Sir Harry Smith issued a Proclamation declaring the whole territory between the Orange River and Vaal River to be under the sovereignty of the Queen, and a British Resident was appointed at Bloemfontein. The discontented farmers, under Pretorius, took up arms, but were defeated by Sir Harry Smith at Boomplaats. The British Government, however, before long determined to abandon the territory; and in 1854 the Convention of Bloemfontein was signed, by which, much against the will of many of the inhabitants, British sovereignty was withdrawn, and the independence of the country was recognised.

In 1889, not long after the death of President Brand, whose wisdom and moderation had won general recognition, the Orange Free State entered into an alliance with the South African Republic. This alliance was renewed in 1897 and was appealed to as binding the Free State to assist the South African Republic in her quarrel with Great Britain in 1899. This course was determined on by a resolution of the Volksraad in 1899, and resulted<sup>\*</sup> in the annexation of the country to the British dominions by a Proclamation of Lord Roberts issued on the 28th of May, 1900, the new colony being called the Orange River Colony.

*Industries.*—The leading, if not exclusive, industry of the country is agriculture, inclusive of stock and sheep-farming. There are four coal mines open. Three diamond mines are actively at work, and yield a value of about £70,000 a month. Prospecting for both diamonds and gold is being energetically carried on.

#### TRANSVAAL.

The Transvaal lies to the north of the Orange River Colony and to the South of Rhodesia, being bounded on the west by the Bechuanaland Protectorate, and to the east chiefly by the Portuguese possessions, but touching Natal at the south-east

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\* For an account of the events leading up to the war, and the war itself, see "Transvaal."

corner. It is divided from the Orange River Colony by the River Vaal, from which it takes its name.

Its area is about 111,700 square miles, with a population of 870,000, some 288,750 being white. The greater part lies high, seldom less than 4,000 feet above the sea. The climate is healthy, except in the lower country to the north and east, which is hot and often feverish. Heavy storms are frequent in summer.

Swaziland is a dependency of the Government of the Transvaal, lying on its eastern border. Its extent is 6,000 square miles, and its population consists of 40,000 natives and about 100 whites.

† *History*.—The first European settlers in the Transvaal Territory were emigrant Cape farmers. In 1848 British sovereignty was extended over the Orange River Territory, but no attempt was made by the British Government to exercise authority over its unwilling subjects beyond the Vaal, and in January, 1852, a treaty was made with them, containing a promise that they would not be interfered with in the management of their own affairs. This treaty is known as the Sand River Convention. The emigrants at the time formed three independent communities, which did not unite until 1858, when they adopted for themselves the name of the South African Republic. After fifteen years of somewhat chequered history, the people of the Transvaal elected as President the Rev. Thomas Burgers, a clergyman of the Dutch Reformed Church, from the Cape Colony, and high hopes were entertained by many for the future of the Republic under his guidance. These hopes were not fulfilled. Misfortunes followed one another in rapid succession, and only ended with the collapse of the Government and the extinction of the Republic.

The President early conceived the project of a railway to be made from Delagoa Bay into the Republic, to carry its produce profitably to the sea; and to promote this project he visited Europe in 1875, concluded a treaty with Portugal, and essayed to launch a loan of £300,000 in Amsterdam, of which, however, only about £74,000 was subscribed. This money he spent in buying plant for the proposed railway. The Republic, however, drifted into disputes with the Zulus and Bechuanas, and proved unable to enforce their authority. The peace of South Africa being deemed to be in danger, Her Majesty's Government despatched Sir Theophilus Shepstone to South Africa, as a Special Commissioner from Her Majesty, to watch events, and take such action as might be necessary to secure the general peace. When Sir Theophilus Shepstone arrived in the Transvaal, he considered, on a review of all the circumstances, that no other course was open to him than to proclaim the

Queen's sovereignty. This he did on the 12th of April by a proclamation which was approved by Her Majesty's Government.

The annexation of the Transvaal was effected without the aid of physical force. Sir T. Shepstone at the time had with him but a few mounted policemen ; and Her Majesty's troops did not arrive in the province for some time after the English Government had been set up, with the apparent acquiescence of the public. But subsequently hostile feelings towards the annexation were widely manifested, and two deputations were sent to England after annexation, to represent those who were opposed to that measure and desired a withdrawal of the British Government. In each case the answer of her late Majesty's Government was a decided negative.

In 1880 a majority of the Boers took up arms against the Government, and hoisted the flag of the South African Republic. The towns held by Imperial troops were immediately invested, and Sir G. Pomeroy Colley, without waiting for reinforcements, collected the small force at his disposal and advanced from Natal to relieve them. A large force of Boers, determined to oppose his entry into the Transvaal, took possession of Laing's Nek, the path by which he had to cross the Drakensberg range.

In the meantime strenuous efforts were being made by President Brand, of the Orange Free State, to bring about an understanding, and in reply to the appeal which he made to Her Majesty's Government, they declared that if the Boers would desist from armed opposition to the English troops, a scheme would be framed for the permanent friendly settlement of all difficulties. This message was forwarded to the Boers in a letter addressed to Mr. Paul Kruger, one of their leaders ; but shortly afterwards General Colley, having received no reply to his message, moved out with three hundred and fifty men, and took possession of the summit of the Majuba Mountain, a spur of the Drakensberg, commanding the Boer camp at Laing's Nek. The Boers attacked the mountain next day, and carried it by storm, with little loss, while only about one-fifth of the defenders escaped, the rest being killed, wounded, or taken prisoners. Sir G. Colley himself was killed.

The command now devolved on Sir E. Wood, who was at Pietermaritzburg organising the advance of the reinforcements, and, at the instance of President Brand, an interview took place between him and General Joubert, who was in command of the Boers at Laing's Nek, which resulted in the conclusion of an armistice, with a view to allow time for the receipt of Mr. Kruger's reply to the message of Her Majesty's Government. Mr. Kruger's answer was considered satisfactory. A preliminary peace agreement was signed on the 21st March by

Sir E. Wood and the representatives of the Boers. The terms of the agreement were that Her Majesty's Government should allow the Transvaal self-government as regards its own interior affairs ; that the control and management of the foreign relations of the State should be reserved to Her Majesty as suzerain ; and that the Government of the Transvaal should recognise a British Resident. The functions of this officer, and the provisions for the protection of the interests of the native population, were to be determined by Her Majesty's Government on the recommendation of a Royal Commission.

In the result a Convention was framed embodying the terms of the peace agreement, assigning the boundaries of the State, defining the functions of the Resident as analogous to those of a consul-general and chargé d'affaires, and conferring upon him extensive powers for the protection of the interests of the natives in the Transvaal. Stipulations were made for the repayment of the sums advanced by Her Majesty's Government in aid of the revenue of the Transvaal during the occupation.

The Transvaal State, however, showed little disposition to acquiesce in the Pretoria Convention, and constant trouble occurred on the border, especially on the south-western border, where the Bechuanaland tribes suffered severely from the incursions of freebooters from the Transvaal, which the Transvaal Government entirely failed to restrain, and, indeed, endeavoured to turn to account by acquiring fresh territory in violation of the Convention. In 1884, however, Her Majesty's Government yielded to representations of the Transvaal Government and granted a new Convention, which was signed in London in 1884. By it fresh articles were substituted for the articles of the Pretoria Convention, but no reference was made to the preamble in it, which contained the reservation of suzerainty. This point became of importance in the subsequent controversy regarding the status of the South African Republic, as the Transvaal State was now called.

The new Convention provided for the extension of the boundary of the Republic on the south-west, and abolished the British Resident and all direct control over native affairs, but stipulated that the Republic should not conclude any treaty with any foreign power without the consent of Her Majesty's Government.

The Transvaal, which had been bankrupt in 1877 when it was annexed, remained for some years after the retrocession in great financial difficulties. From these, however, it was not only saved, but raised to an unprecedented height of prosperity by the development by immigrants, chiefly British subjects, of the gold industry on the Witwatersrand, which began to grow soon after the signature of the London Convention. The progress



achieved is clearly reflected in the fact that the revenue of the Republic, which, in 1885, amounted to £177,877, had risen to £3,329,958 in 1898. The new-comers, however, found themselves in an unsatisfactory position, having no voice in the administration, and in particular they complained of the grant of concessions and monopolies, against one of which, the dynamite monopoly, Her Majesty's Government entered, in 1899, a special protest.

Towards the end of 1895, a revolutionary movement was set on foot in Johannesburg. On the 29th December, Dr. Jameson crossed the border of the Transvaal with a small force from Bechuanaland, and was defeated, and surrendered at Krugersdorp. The High Commissioner, Sir Hercules Robinson, hurried to Pretoria, and by his intermediation Johannesburg laid down its arms.

In 1897 the Government, in consequence of the complaints of the mining industry, appointed a commission of inquiry, whose report showed clearly the existence of very serious maladministration. Little or no reform, however, resulted.

Her Majesty's Government, in 1898, represented the grievances of the Uitlanders (the Dutch term for foreign settlers) to the Government of the South African Republic, and a conference was held, the principal question being the grant of the franchise to the Uitlanders, but no agreement was arrived at.

Shortly afterwards, however, a franchise law, giving a seven years' retrospective franchise, was passed by the Volksraad without reference to Her Majesty's Government. This law was an improvement on any previous proposal, but there was ground for doubting whether it did not contain many provisions which would render it illusory in actual practice, and Her Majesty's Government, therefore, proposed a joint inquiry as to whether it would give "immediate and substantial representation." The Government of the Republic were extremely unwilling to accept the joint inquiry, and an alternative proposal for a five years' franchise was made on condition that Her Majesty's Government would not in future interfere in the internal affairs of the Republic, and would not insist further upon the assertion of suzerainty, (this point had acquired special importance since the South African Republic, on the 9th May, had claimed the status of a sovereign international state). Her Majesty's Government replied, that they could not bind themselves never to intervene again, but they expressed the hope that further intervention would be unnecessary if the franchise was granted. As to suzerainty they refused to continue the discussion. The South African Republic thereupon withdrew their five years' offer unless accepted with the conditions above stated, and called on Her Majesty's Govern-

ment to revert to the proposal for a Joint Commission on the seven years' franchise. On the 22nd of September, Her Majesty's Government repeated their views, and stated that their own proposals for a settlement would be formulated later.

After some correspondence between the President of the Orange Free State and the High Commissioner, in which the High Commissioner, as late as the 5th of October, said that any definite proposal would still be considered, the South African Republic, without waiting for Her Majesty's Government to formulate their proposals, handed to the British Agent an ultimatum, dated 9th October, requiring the instant withdrawal of British troops on the borders of the Republic, and the removal of all reinforcements which had arrived in South Africa since the 1st of June, and demanding an answer by five o'clock on the 11th of October. It was deemed impossible by Her Majesty's Government to discuss such a demand, and war broke out accordingly. The Orange Free State, in pursuance of a resolution passed on the 27th September, threw in its lot with the Transvaal.

A great exodus from the Rand had begun some time before the actual outbreak of war, the Government of the Republic having been commandeering and making other preparations for war, and so much distress resulted from the crowding of thousands of homeless refugees into the British Colonies that relief funds were started in this country.

On the outbreak of war, the Boers immediately invaded British territory to the south-east and west of the Republics. The operations on the western side were chiefly concerned with the investment of Mafeking and Kimberley. Meantime the main body of the Boers invaded Natal under General Joubert. The first considerable engagement of the war occurred at Dundee on the 20th October, where General Symons attacked and repulsed a Boer commando. On the 21st of October, the British army at Ladysmith attacked a Boer commando at Elands-laagte, and inflicted a severe defeat. On the 30th Sir G. White made a reconnaissance from Ladysmith, and during the engagement which then took place two battalions and a mountain battery were cut off and captured by the Boers. Ladysmith was then surrounded by the Boers and communication cut. On the 3rd of November Colenso was evacuated, and the garrison there fell back on Estcourt.

Meanwhile troops were on the way from England. The Governments of Canada, and of all the Australian Colonies offered the services of contingents, and the offer was gratefully accepted; the despatch of troops from the different colonies was rapidly organised, and they left amidst enthusiastic demonstrations of loyalty. Offers of troops were also made by

several of the Crown Colonies, and by the Federated Malay States, and contingents of mounted Volunteers were accepted from India and Ceylon.

As the troops from England arrived, a move forward was made in two directions. A Natal relief column prepared for an advance to the relief of Ladysmith. Sir Redvers Buller, who was in chief command of the British forces, left Cape-town for Natal to direct the general plan of advance, and by the end of November the British forces had arrived near Colenso.

On December 15th, Sir R. Buller made an attack on the enemy and attempted to cross the Tugela at Colenso, but he had to retire to his camp after suffering severely in casualties and abandoning a large number of guns. On the western side a force under Lord Methuen pushed up along the railway to the relief of Kimberley. On the 23rd of November he attacked the Boers at Belmont and dispersed them. Two days later he pushed aside a further force at Enslin, and on the 28th November he forced a large body of the enemy to evacuate a strong position at the Modder River. He was then delayed for some days whilst the bridge over the Modder was being reconstructed and reinforcements and stores sent up to him. On December 11th he attacked the enemy at Magersfontein, but was unsuccessful in carrying the position, and fell back on the Modder River. The losses in the engagement were heavy.

The northern borders of Cape Colony, where there were a few British garrisons, were invaded by parties of Orange Free State Boers, with the apparent object of gaining recruits from the Dutch residents in the Colony, in which they were partially successful. General Gatacre, on his arrival, took command of the British troops in these districts. His first important action took place on the 10th of December, when he was unsuccessful in a night attack on Stormberg, having to retire with the loss of over 600 men captured.

On the receipt of news of the capture of the battalions at Ladysmith, orders were at once given for the despatch of further reinforcements from England. The repulses experienced early in December made it necessary to take further measures. On the 7th of the month it was announced that Field-Marshal Lord Roberts would go out to take supreme command at the Cape, leaving Sir R. Buller to confine his attention to the operations in Natal; Lord Kitchener was appointed Chief of the Staff to Lord Roberts. Large reinforcements were ordered out from England, and further help offered by Australia and Canada was gladly accepted.

Lord Roberts reached Modder River on 9th February, 1900, and General French relieved Kimberley on the 16th. General Cronjé was caught up and surrendered with all his force on

che 27th. Ladysmith, after two unsuccessful attempts, was relieved by General Buller on the 28th of the same month. Lord Roberts reached Bloemfontein on the 13th of March, and Pretoria on the 5th of June.

The Transvaal was annexed to Her Majesty's dominions by a Proclamation which Lord Roberts issued at Belfast on the 1st of September, 1900, Lord Roberts becoming Administrator, in which office he was succeeded on his departure from South Africa at the end of the year by Sir Alfred Milner (now Lord Milner), who was selected for the post of Governor of the Transvaal and of the Orange River Colony, an office which he combined with that of High Commissioner for South Africa.

The Transvaal Colony remained the scene of military operations till May, 1902, when on the last day of that month Articles of Peace were signed. The Boer forces by these undertook to recognise the King as their lawful Sovereign, and His Majesty's Government engaged to provide a sum of £3,000,000 for the relief of persons distressed by the war operations.

A much larger amount (£14,500,000) has been expended in the work of repairing the ravages of war and re-stocking the farms. Of this sum nearly £10,000,000 has been provided by the Home Government.

The colony has raised loans of £35,000,000 to discharge liabilities arising out of the war, to purchase the railways, and for other requirements. An understanding was also arrived at in 1903 that the colony should, at some future date, raise a further loan of £30,000,000, which should be paid to the Imperial Government as a contribution to the cost of the war; since then, however, considerable commercial depression has been experienced, a frequent result after the waste caused by a great war, and as it has been considered that the finances of the colony could not bear the burden of the interest, this "war loan" has not been raised. The expedient of importing Chinese to work in the mines was resorted to in 1904 in the hope that it would facilitate economical working, and in 1905 a record output of gold was reached. At the end of that year there were 47,000 Chinese on the Rand, and some 15,000 more were to arrive; but the conditions under which they worked, especially their being confined to mine premises, aroused strong objections in this country, and further importation was stopped pending a decision as to the grant of responsible government. It is practically settled that this grant shall be made at an early date, and the details of the arrangement are under consideration. One peculiar and interesting point may be mentioned—the "one vote, one value" principle. In other countries the general population is made the basis of the distribution of constituencies, for the number of persons entitled to vote is



closely proportionate to population in each district, and there is no reason why this convenient basis should not be adopted. In the Transvaal there is a different state of things; in the towns the population of voters to the local population is very much greater than in the country, because in the latter there are more families. The British population, therefore, which is almost entirely in the towns, would benefit by an arrangement under which the constituencies were settled according to the number of actual voters in the district; the Dutch, if the total population were alone considered.

*Industries.*—The Transvaal stood before the outbreak of war at the head of the gold-producing countries of the world.

The production, which in 1887 amounted to a value of £169,401, rose steadily, until in 1898 it reached 4,555,022 oz., of a value of £16,044,135.

In 1905 the value was £20,802,074.

Almost the whole production is from the reef, the alluvial gold being inconsiderable in amount.

The main reef on the Witwatersrand, continuously traced, measures about 62 miles, and between 1887 and end of 1904 produced about £124,000,000 of gold. Since the British occupation great activity has been displayed in boring operations, especially in the far eastern and western extensions of the Rand; but in the outside districts prospecting is for promising quartz or other surface indications. Considerable prospecting for diamonds is being carried on in the Pretoria district, and the Premier Mine, about 20 miles north-east of Pretoria, is producing at the rate of 49,349 carats per month (£67,855).

The gold-bearing strata of the Witwatersrand, commonly called the Rand, consist of thin layers of rock tilted by volcanic action at the edges or outcrops, and descending into the earth at varying angles. They are mined at the surface and again at depths reaching 4,000 feet: these latter are called the deep-level mines. It is calculated that the paying reef will last about forty-five years, but improvements in processes may render poorer ore remunerative. The strata are about 5 inch to 8 feet thick. The gold is not visible, but is traced by the "banket," or conglomerate rock in which it lies. It is extracted by elaborate chemical processes. In 1904 the output of coal was 2,409,033 tons.

The Boers confine themselves mostly to farming, and £1,200,000 has been recently spent in encouraging this industry.

## TERRITORIES UNDER THE HIGH COMMISSIONER.

There are certain territories in South Africa which are not technically colonies but are under British protection or control.

They are administered by a High Commissioner (who is also at present the Governor of the Transvaal and Orange River Colony. They are, (1) Basutoland, lying to the north-east of Cape Colony. It is the finest grain-producing country in South Africa, and enables the Basuto to rear immense herds of cattle. The population is estimated at 263,400 natives and 647 Europeans. The government of this country, after many wars and changes, was undertaken in 1883 by the Imperial Government at the request of the Basutos.

(2) Bechuanaland Protectorate, on the north of Cape Colony and the west of the Transvaal. The native population is estimated at 120,000, and the Europeans at 1,000. The British protectorate was proclaimed in 1888, as a result of local disturbances.

(3) Rhodesia (so called after the late Cecil J. Rhodes), lying to the north of the Transvaal. The southern portion represents the old native provinces of Mashonaland and Matabeleland. On the north Rhodesia stretches up to German East Africa. The area is estimated at 750,000 square miles, mostly on a plateau from 3,000 to 6,000 feet above sea level. The native population is about 564,000.

In 1889 a Royal Charter was granted to the British South Africa Company, conferring upon it large powers of administration over the southern part of Rhodesia, which covers about 143,830 square miles. In 1893 the Company's police suppressed a rising by the Matabele. After Dr. Jameson's raid into the Transvaal in 1895 measures were taken to give the High Commissioner increased control over the Company's administration, especially the police, but the cost of this force is paid by the Company. There is an administrator, an executive council, and a legislative council containing seven elected members; the official members in both bodies are appointed by the company subject to the approval of the Secretary of State.

Salisbury, the seat of the Government, has a white population of 2,681. Bulawayo is the commercial centre, with a white population of 5,995; it is 1,362 miles from Cape Town. About 277 miles from Bulawayo are the Victoria Falls, on the River Zambesi, the greatest waterfall in the world.

A "hut tax" of £1 a year is imposed on the natives. The natives at the mines can earn from 30s. to £3 a month with board and lodging.

The country is well watered and well adapted for stock raising and agriculture. Fruit trees thrive. The plateau lies at an altitude of 3,000 to 6,000 feet above sea level. From May to September there is practically no rain, but heavy rains fall in the other period. The climate is equable, the summer not being oppressively hot; the highlands are healthy.

Numerous ancient writings show that before the Christian era, gold was obtained in Southern Rhodesia, very possibly by Phœnicians. In modern times the industry has only been recently revived, but the output is now considerable, 267,737 ozs. in 1904.

The railway from Cape Town reached Bulawayo (a distance of over 2,000 miles) in 1897. An extension to the River Zambesi was completed in 1904, and is being now carried northwards towards Lake Tanganyika.

#### ST. HELENA AND ASCENSION.

These islands may conveniently be grouped with South Africa, as their importance is due to their lying on the route from England.

#### ST. HELENA.

*General Description.*—St. Helena is an island in the South Atlantic Ocean, 1,200 miles from the coast of Africa, in  $15^{\circ} 55'$  S. lat., and  $5^{\circ} 42'$  W. long. It is  $10\frac{1}{2}$  miles long and  $6\frac{1}{2}$  broad, covering an area of 47 square miles, or about 30,000 acres (a little larger than Jersey). The distance from Southampton is 4,477 miles, and from Capetown 1,695 miles.

A census taken in May, 1901, shows a population of 9,850, of whom 4,650 were Boer prisoners of war.

The capital and only town is Jamestown, on the north-west of the island, with a population of 1,439. The climate is mild, and varies little, the thermometer in Jamestown ranging in summer between  $68^{\circ}$  and  $84^{\circ}$ , and in winter between  $57^{\circ}$  and  $70^{\circ}$ . The island is very healthy, the average death-rate being only about 14 per 1,000.

*History.*—St. Helena, then uninhabited and well wooded, was discovered by the Portuguese in 1502. They built a church there, but made no permanent settlement. The Dutch held it from 1645 to 1650, when they abandoned it. It was taken possession of by the East India Company in 1651, and a Charter for its administration was granted in 1661. It was twice seized by the Dutch and recovered. A new Charter was issued by Charles II. to the East India Company for its possession in 1673, and it remained under that Company, with the exception

of the period of Napoleon's imprisonment there, till 1834, when it was brought under the direct government of the Crown by an Act of Parliament of 1833.

*Industry.*—St. Helena is well watered by clear springs, which are abundant. It is situated in the heart of the South Atlantic trade wind, blowing from the south-east for about 330 days in the year, and in the direct track of vessels homeward bound from the East round the Cape of Good Hope. Previous to the opening of the overland route it was a port of call for a vast quantity of shipping and passengers to and from India and other ports of the East, and in consequence of its importance in connection with the Eastern trade, large establishments were maintained, both civil and military. For many years it was also a *dépôt* for liberated Africans landed from slavers captured by the West Coast squadron.

Beyond the supply of the passing shipping it has never produced any article of export properly so called, except flax fibre. Its trade depends exclusively upon the intercourse and the visits of the Antarctic whalers and of ships in distress, and has greatly diminished in recent years in consequence of the opening of the Suez Canal.

#### ASCENSION.

The island of Ascension, 34 miles in area, lying in the South Atlantic, lat.  $7^{\circ} 53'$  S. and long.  $14^{\circ} 18'$  W., is under the supervision of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, who maintain a small naval station there. It was taken possession of in 1815, and is now garrisoned by marines. It is famous for its turtles, large numbers of which are caught between December and May. The mail steamers from the Cape call there once a month, and it is connected by telegraph with St. Vincent, St. Helena, and Sierra Leone. It is a barren, rocky peak of purely volcanic origin, and destitute of vegetation, except at the highest point, 2,870 feet high, but has been cultivated to an extent permitting the maintenance of 3,000 sheep. The population is about 400. All expenses are charged to naval funds.

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## WEST AFRICA.

The British possessions in West Africa consist of—

(1) Four colonies, viz. :

Gambia.  
Sierra Leone,  
Gold Coast,  
Lagos.

These colonies are situated on the coast, and the three first represent old settlements and factories. In recent times the work of administration has been extended beyond the confines of the colonies proper, to large areas inland, which have not technically been annexed to the British dominions, but are treated as protectorates. For each of these cases the administration is carried on by the Government of the adjacent colony, except in the case of Ashanti, which was recently given a government independent of that of the Gold Coast.

Lagos has recently been merged in Southern Nigeria for administrative purposes.

(2) Three protectorates, having separate governments, viz. :

Ashanti, as above mentioned,  
Southern Nigeria,  
Northern Nigeria.

Ashanti and Northern Nigeria are wholly inland.

A glance at the map will show that all the coast from Gambia on the north to Southern Nigeria on the south has been taken up by England, France and Germany, a fact which bears evidence to the value of its products to industrial Powers.

*Physical Features.*—The coasts are practically unbroken except where the rivers or deltas open out on the sea. The only large peninsula is that of Sierra Leone. League after league the sea-borne traveller sees only a dreary, low coast, beyond a great width of white surf. There are numerous lagoons, which lie between the coast and the ridges of sand, and afford protection against the incessant surf of the Atlantic, but access to them is often difficult. The mouths of the rivers are characterised by great mangrove swamps, and there are numerous networks of creeks and waterways, with here and there patches of land on which villages are built.

In the interior there is a broad belt of tropical forests and swamps, and beyond ranges of low hills. The forests gradually grow thinner until open grassy plains are reached.

*Vegetation.*—The following are among the most useful productions of West Africa:—

Palm-oil and palm kernels.—Obtained from a variety of palm called *Elaeis guineensis*. The palm-oil trade succeeded the slave trade as a source of profit to European traders. The amount at present exported to Britain alone exceeds 1,200,000 cwts., and large quantities are sent to other countries.

Palm kernels are used largely in the making of food for cattle. Palm-oil is used for the making of stearine for candles, for soap, glycerine, and for lubricating purposes as engine grease and wheel grease. The pure oil is much used in South Wales for the purpose of tin-plate manufacture.

The Yam.—The common yam is a slender creeper plant; it is most wholesome and palatable when well prepared, and forms the staple food of most of the natives.

Kola.—A tree from twenty to thirty feet high. The nuts are highly esteemed as sustaining food, and are transported for great distances.

Rubber.—Obtained from rubber or creeper vines and also from a tree known as *Kickxia africana*. This export is now second in value only to palm-oil throughout British West Africa.

Mahogany.—The African mahogany, or redwood tree, is found in many parts of West Africa, and a large export trade takes place wherever there are waterways near the place where the timber grows.

Ebony.—A very large quantity of this wood was formerly exported, especially from Southern Nigeria, but of late years this trade has declined.

Fibres, for use in brush-making, mat-making, and other industries, are largely exported, especially those of the *Raphia vinifera*, or bamboo palm.

Gum.—There are many varieties used for export, including fossil-gum, resin, gum copal, gum arabic, and scented gums. These are produced from many sorts of trees and shrubs. West African gums are used in medicine, confectionery, in dressing cotton and linen goods, in the manufacture of blacking, as well as for sticking purposes.

Ground-nuts.—Exported for the sake of the pure oil obtained, which is used for pomade and soap, and also for oil-cake for cattle. France is the chief customer for them.

Cotton grows wild in many parts of West Africa, and has also been cultivated in several districts by the natives for local use. A British Cotton Growing Association has been formed in Liverpool and Manchester to encourage the production of cotton on British soil. The output is at present insignificant compared with that of the United States (12,000,000 bales), but it could be greatly increased, especially if Northern Nigeria could be opened up by railways.

*Animals.*—The bush and forest teem with life. The chimpanzee is found throughout the forest region, but the gorilla is not usually seen north of the Cameroons. The most common of the larger animals is the elephant. The hippopotamus abounds in most of the large rivers and lakes. The lion is numerous in many parts of the hinterland, but is rarely found near the coast. Leopards, hyænas, antelopes of many kinds, wild cats, and monkeys of different species are numerous.

Insect life is myriad, including the sandfly and the mosquito, the tsetse fly—dangerous to horses and cattle—and the crawling centipede. Ants, large and small, are everywhere ready to devour food or wood.

*Climate.*—The year is divided into the wet and the dry seasons; the former, marked by very heavy rains, beginning about April or May and ending about September or October. The climate is very unhealthy for Europeans, who suffer severely from malarial fever, especially in the wet season. The mortality, however, has been considerably reduced recently by improved sanitary conditions and the advance in medical knowledge. Malarial fever has been traced to the bite of a certain kind of mosquito, and much benefit has resulted from precautions taken to avoid or destroy this insect.

*Natives.*—On the coast the inhabitants are nearly all pure negroes. These represent tribes which, before Europeans had discovered a way to the Gulf of Guinea by sea, had been thrust down from the plains of the interior to the swampy lands of the coast by the the Mahomedan Moors and Berbers of the North of Africa. Most of them are, or have been till lately, steeped in fetishism known as “Ju-Ju worship,” which is not so much real worship as propitiation of evil spirits, and is accompanied by human sacrifices and cannibalism. This religion is supported by secret societies, bound by oath, and practising strange and degrading customs in a manner suggestive of some old pagan cults of Greece and Rome. It was not till 1900 that the British Government came into close touch (in Northern

Nigeria) with the higher races of the interior, which profess the Mahomedan religion and show traces of the ancient civilisation of the Sudan. These races were, during the period of the triumph of the Moslem in Europe, in close touch with Morocco and the Mediterranean, and their great cities, such as Timbuktu and Kano, showed some of the art and learning which distinguished the Moslems in Northern Africa and Spain. The decay of the Moslem power in those countries almost severed the contact of the Nigerian countries with the north, and at the time of the British occupation the rulers had become for the most part unscrupulous tyrants, revelling in rapine.

*History.*—The earliest colonies—Gambia and Gold Coast—were founded almost solely for the purpose of prosecuting the traffic in slaves, who were required by the planters of the West Indies. The old sailing route to the latter colonies was usually by the Canaries or Cape de Verd Islands, this southerly course having more favourable winds than the more direct northerly route, and the transport of slaves from West Africa was therefore easy.

The first settlements were made by companies who received Charters to hold forts for the purpose of carrying on the traffic; but no other territory was acquired, and practically no use made of the local products.

The traffic reached its height towards the end of the eighteenth century. In 1807, however, an Act was passed, as a result of the efforts of Wilberforce and his adherents, abolishing the importation of slaves into British dominions; and, in 1834, slavery itself was abolished. The result of the abolition of the oversea traffic was that the West African settlements fell into great difficulties; and, in 1821, the Crown took over the government from the companies. Soon afterwards the Home Government, which had been involved in a war with the Ashantis, handed the forts back to the merchants; but, in 1843, mainly because the merchants were suspected of conniving at an illicit slave trade with America, the Crown assumed possession. Thus the settlements, which had been founded to carry on the slave trade, were, after some 200 years, maintained to prevent it, and Lagos was added to them to carry out this policy further. The campaign against the trade, however, involved a heavy burden on the taxpayer at home. In 1865—in which year a Select Committee of the House of Commons dealt with the subject—the British Treasury were paying a grant-in-aid, to make up the annual deficit, for the civil establishments on the coasts of £14,000, and defraying the cost of troops, amounting to £130,000 a year; in addition, the maintenance of the squadron on the coast cost about £150,000 a year.



The United States, however, had closed their doors to the traffic in slaves, and Cuba alone now encouraged it. Trade was poor, and the arrangements with the natives were vague and fruitful of difficulties. It is not, therefore, altogether surprising that the Committee took a despondent view of the situation. They recommended a policy of reduction "with a view to ultimate withdrawal from all, except, probably, Sierra Leone." No action however was taken on this recommendation, and subsequent events proceeded in a contrary direction to an extent that illustrates the irony of history. In 1872 the Dutch voluntarily ceded to us all their forts on the Gold Coast. In 1873 the Ashanti war occurred, and the responsibilities of the British Government for the maintenance of law and order became much more definite. Trade now grew apace, and other Powers were attracted to the scene by the prospects held out; by the year 1885 the "scramble for Africa" was in full swing. France, with headquarters in Senegal, had established herself strongly on the coast at several points, and displayed such vigour that it seemed possible that in the interior she would take possession of a line of territory stretching from Algeria to Lake Tchad, thus restricting the development inland of our colonies, and cutting off the road to the East of Africa. Germany in 1884 had annexed Togoland and the Cameroons. Almost simultaneously Great Britain had declared a protectorate over the "Oil Rivers" (Southern Nigeria), and the Royal Niger Company was in exclusive possession of the Middle Niger (representing Northern Nigeria). The conflicting claims arising out of this situation were settled as far as was then possible by an International Conference at Berlin in 1885. Five years afterwards a second Conference was held at Brussels to deal with questions of humanity which had arisen in the attempts to administer the new possessions; and rules were agreed to with a view to preventing slave-raiding, and regulating the importation of firearms and spirits.

Twelve years followed with no great political event, but with rapidly increasing trade. In 1897 the conflicting claims of Great Britain and France at the back of the Gold Coast and on the Middle Niger became acute, and a state of great tension occurred; the difficulties, however, were adjusted, and the net result to us was the establishment of the northern territories north of Ashanti, and of the Northern Nigerian Protectorate, the administration of the latter territory being taken over from the Royal Niger Company.

The total trade of the West African possessions in 1904, was £9,738,584, or nearly nine times as much as it was at the period of the Committee of Enquiry referred to (1865). Up to the latter date, the European settlers held merely a few forts along the coast, at which the trade of the country was slightly

tapped ; since then, to the exact contrary of the Committee's recommendations, we have steadily moved inland. West Africa is peculiarly rich in tropical products, such as mahogany, rubber and oils, which are yielded by nature unaided ; and on the other hand, British industries, especially the looms of Lancashire, have found a convenient market there, in fact, nowhere else in the empire is the trade so largely British as in this group. This fact, in conjunction with the great possibilities offered by the vast interior, has in the last few years led to the great expansion of our territorial dependencies beyond the limits of the old colonies, and to the commencement of railways at three different points of the coast—Freetown in Sierra Leone, Sekondi in the Gold Coast, and Lagos.

The administrations have been brought by this rapid development face to face with two problems which had hardly been touched previously. The first is the treatment of native races ; and in West Africa, where many of the races are very low in the scale of civilisation, this problem is perhaps more difficult than anywhere else. Slave raiding, and the buying or selling of a slave, are illegal wherever the British flag flies, but the institution of "domestic slavery" is so deep rooted, and the idea of contract labour or the relation of employers and employé so novel, that the population can only be educated gradually. In the meantime the possession of slaves has not in itself been made illegal, but usually a slave who deserts is protected from recapture. The status of these family slaves is more like that of the serfs in mediæval times than that of the exported slave. They are free to marry and can take work from outside by paying compensation, usually one-third of the wage to their owners. The introduction of money and the extension of employment under contract will hasten the decay of this system, and industry and production will greatly increase as the slave population—which in many places constitutes half of the whole—becomes converted into free men.

The second problem is that of the development of products in a country where the climate prevents white men from undertaking much manual labour. Much experimental work is done and valuable counsel given by the Royal Gardens at Kew and by the Imperial Institute. The colonial officials lose no opportunity of encouraging the natives to plant, and as civilisation and education spread the growth of trade with this population of some 15,000,000 cannot fail to be enormous.

The question of transport is exceedingly important in a country where roads are difficult to make and the rivers full of snags and rapids. Merchandise is usually carried into the interior on the heads of natives, a mode of transport which is, of course, very expensive (about 6s. per ton per mile). Railways will greatly reduce this expense, besides carrying Europeans

up from the fever-stricken swamps and mud-banks to the healthier uplands. Horses do not stand the climate, and motor traction will probably be largely used on the roads. Native labour is generally plentiful and cheap, at about 9d. a day.

In the matters of labour, road-making, planting, etc., the co-operation of the native chiefs is extensively invited; some part of the administration of the law is also entrusted to them, especially in respect of the less serious criminal offences. They are thus gradually educated by encouraging reflection and the feeling of responsibility, and on the whole, notwithstanding some occasional outbreaks, it is remarkable how generally it is brought home to them that it is to their interest to accept the control of the British Government.

### THE GAMBIA.

*Situation and Area.*—The Gambia is a great river of Western Africa 1,400 miles long, running through French territory until 243 miles from the coast, where the British Protectorate begins on both banks. It falls into the Atlantic Ocean by a large estuary measuring in some parts nearly 27 miles across, but contracting to little more than two at the town of Bathurst, the capital town of the colony, situated on St. Mary's Island, a sandbank about three and a-half miles long and a mile and a-quarter broad, separated from the mainland by a narrow channel. A large portion of the island is a swamp, the level of which is in many parts below that of the river.

The total area of the colony and the further territory which is administered under British protection, is about 4,000 square miles, and the population is about 140,000.

*History.*—The Gambia was discovered in 1447 by the early Portuguese navigators, but they made no settlement.

In 1588 a patent was granted by Queen Elizabeth to some merchants in Exeter to trade with the Gambia, and in 1618 a company was formed for this. It was not successful, and another established two years later also failed. In 1664 a fort was built on the island, now known as Fort James.

In 1724, and subsequently till its abolition, the trade in slaves formed the staple traffic of the Company. The general commerce between Great Britain and the Gambia fell off after the abolition of the slave trade (1807) till 1816, when a new settlement was formed at the Island of St. Mary by British merchants from Senegal, and the town of Bathurst commenced.

The right of trade was abandoned to England by France in the treaty of 1783. The same treaty gave the Senegal river to the French.

The protectorate has been established at various times from 1894 to 1901 by agreement with the different chiefs concerned.

Travelling commissioners regularly, during the eight months of dry weather, travel through the protectorate on both banks of the river. A "yard" or "hut" tax, which averages about 4s. per annum for a family, is imposed in the protectorate.

Stipends are now only paid in a few cases, and presents are occasionally made to the more influential chiefs, in return for their services in preserving peace and keeping the trade routes open.

*Industry.*—The principal productions of the settlement and of the adjoining districts are ground-nuts, hides, beeswax, rice, cotton, maize, corn, palm-kernels, indiarubber, wax and native "pagns," or country cloths. With the exception of the weaving of cotton into native cloths, the manufacture of vegetable oils, boat-building, and some brick-making, there are no manufacturing industries in the country.

A considerable entrepôt trade is done with the French settlements and the adjoining coast districts in cotton goods, spirits, tobacco, rice, kola-nuts, and hardware.

*Climate and Inhabitants.*—The climate is fairly healthy during the dry season. The mean temperature is 82°, the annual range being from 60° to 104°. The average rainfall is 50 inches, the rainy season being from June to October.

The inhabitants are mostly of the negro race. There are 80 whites resident in the colony.

#### THE GOLD COAST COLONY.

*General Description.*—The Gold Coast Colony, with Ashanti and the Protected Northern Territories, is situated on the Gulf of Guinea, between 3° 7' W. longitude, and 1° 14' E. longitude, and is bounded on the west by the French settlements of Assinie, on the east by the German colony of Togoland, on the north by the 11th degree of N. latitude, and on the south by the sea.

The area of the colony is 24,200 square miles, of Ashanti, 20,000, and of the Northern Territories, 35,800. The total population of the three is about 1,500,000.

The country is inhabited by a large number of native tribes more or less independent of each other, but with similar customs and forms of government. Each tribe has its own head chief or king, and every town or village of the tribe a chief. The chiefs form the king's council and assist him in



dealing with matters affecting the general welfare of the tribe.

The principal towns are Accra, the capital, Cape Coast, which represents an old castle or fortress, and Sekondi, the starting point of the railway to Ashanti, which was finished in 1903, and passes through the gold mining district. There are numerous waterways. There is no harbour on the coast, and passengers and goods are landed in surf boats.

*History.*—The Gold Coast, with the adjacent territories bordering on the Gulf of Guinea, first became known to Europeans by the enterprise of Portuguese and French navigators in the 14th century. The first European settlement on the Gold Coast was in 1482, when a fort was built and garrisoned by the Portuguese, who subsequently made several other settlements, and obtained Papal authority for their occupation of the country. During the reign of Elizabeth of England, the Dutch established themselves on the coast, and their rivalry was so successful that they eventually terminated the Portuguese occupation in 1642. The first English expeditions to the coast were made in the reign of Edward I, but were all of the nature of private ventures. The "Company of Adventurers of London trading into Africa," incorporated in 1618, led to the establishment of the first British settlement. A second company was formed in 1626, and a third in 1662, and settlements were made. The main object of these companies, as well as those of the other European nations, was traffic in slaves. Three other European nations succeeded in acquiring territories on the Gold Coast, viz., the Swedes, the Brandenburgers, and the Danes. The first-mentioned built the fort of Christiansborg, near Accra, about 1645, but were driven out by the Danes in 1657, and retired from the coast. The Brandenburgers established forts in 1682 and 1685, but their enterprise does not seem to have been prosecuted with much vigour, and was finally abandoned in 1720, their possessions falling into the hands of the Dutch. The Danes, however, rapidly improved their position, building forts at several stations to the east of Accra.

The third English company was not successful. The Dutch traders spared no efforts to get rid of their rivals, and in consequence of their aggression, an expedition was sent by Charles II. in 1663, which recaptured Cape Coast, taken a few years previously by the Dutch, and all the other Dutch forts, with the exception of Elmina and Axim. In the following year, however, the Dutch Commander, de Ruyter, recaptured all the lost Dutch forts, with the exception of Cape Coast; and the treaty of Breda, 1667, left affairs in the Gold Coast in this condition. The fourth English company was incorporated in

the year 1672, under the name of the "Royal African Company of England." Under its influence English interests steadily advanced, and forts were established at several places. The abolition of the exclusive privileges which the Royal African Company enjoyed, led to its decline and eventual dissolution in 1752. By the Acts of Parliament 23 George II., c. 31, and 25 George II., c. 40, a fifth trading corporation, called the "African Company of Merchants," was formed, the membership of which was open to all British traders on payment of a fee of 40s., compensation being paid for its Charter and property to the Royal African Company. An annual subsidy was granted by Parliament to the newly-formed company, until 1821, when by the Act 1 and 2 George IV., c. 28, the company was dissolved and its possessions vested in the Crown and placed under the Government of the West African Settlement, the seat of government being at Sierra Leone.

About 1830 there were serious conflicts with the Ashantis, a tribe in the interior, and the Home Government inclined to the policy of retiring from the coast altogether, and they actually transferred the Government of the forts to the local and London merchants interested, who secured as their governor Mr. George Maclean, a man of marked energy and capacity. This gentleman, with a force of no more than 100 men at command, and with a Government subsidy of only £4,000 a year, contrived to extend and maintain the influence of his government over the whole tract of country now known as the Gold Coast Protectorate. In 1843, it having been suspected that the merchant government connived at the slave trade, the forts were resumed by the Crown, and a Lieutenant-Governor appointed.

Hitherto the forts of the various nations were intermixed with each other, and there was no defined limit as to where the influence of one or the other began or ended. The imposition of customs duties was rendered difficult, if not impossible, by the existence of the free ports of a rival nation within a stone's throw, as it were, of the duty ports. On the 24th of January, 1850, by Letters Patent, the settlements on the Gold Coast ceased to be dependencies of Sierra Leone, and in the same year the forts and protectorate of the Danes were acquired by purchase, and in 1872 the Dutch transferred all their forts and possessions on the coast to the English, and Great Britain obtained at last the sole sovereignty and control of the territory from Axim to Volta.

*Climate.*—The climate is very unhealthy, especially for Europeans. The death-rate among the non-official European population was 34·96 per 1,000 in 1902, but fell to 15·33 in 1903. The mean temperature in the shade at Accra averages 85° F.

The average annual rainfall at the same place is about 26 inches. The rainfall varies with the physical configuration of the country, and is very great in the mining districts of Tarkwa, Upper and Lower Wassaw, etc. The "first rains," or rainy season proper, begin in March and end in July, the "latter rains" are spread over the months of September and October. The Harmattan season begins in December and ends in February. It is characterised by a cool wind which is sometimes dry and bracing, but often moist, and then very depressing. The climate generally is hot and moist, and very malarious.

*Domestic Slavery.*—Domestic slavery existed from time immemorial on the Gold Coast, as in other parts of Africa, the slave population consisting partly of native-born slaves and partly of slaves purchased from Ashanti importers. Slavery was mainly an emanation of parental authority, every man being saleable either by his father or mother, according to the character of the union subsisting between his parents, and the consequent *status* of the mother; but there was also a species of slavery called pawning, founded on contract, which arose when a debtor gave to his creditor, as a security, either himself, or a child or slave, to be a temporary slave in the hands of the creditor until debt and interest were paid.

Within the British possessions on the Gold Coast, slavery was abolished by the Statute 3 and 4 Will. IV., c. 73, but no attempt had been made to deal with it in the protectorate, which was not affected by that statute. An Act of the colony now prohibits, under penalties, the introduction of slaves into the protectorate, and the buying and selling and pawning of slaves and other persons within the protectorate.

*Trade and Industries.*—The chief products of the colony are palm oil, rubber, palm-kernels, lumber, cocoa, kola and gold. Palm oil is used chiefly in the manufacture of soap and candles, and though for this reason its value fluctuates to some extent with the tallow market, the average value of the exports of this article is consistently high.

The value of rubber exports has fluctuated in the last few years. Between 1891 and 1901, rubber was the most important export of the colony, the value for 1899 amounting to £555,731. 15,000 trees have been planted by the Botanical Department in forest land recently acquired by Government, and efforts are being made to instruct the natives in more scientific methods of tapping the trees and preparing the rubber for the market.

Gold has been exported from the Gold Coast more or less continuously since the discovery of the country by Europeans in the fifteenth century. Up to 1874, however, the industry was almost entirely in the hands of the natives. The first

company for gold mining in West Africa was founded in 1874, but did little beyond exploration. A second company, formed in 1879, engaged in mining operations in the neighbourhood of Tarkwa, and from that year the progress of mining enterprise is indicated by the rapid increase in the exports of gold bars, the result of European operations, as compared with those of gold dust, the produce of native mining. In 1899 there was a very remarkable development of the mining industry, which, though checked for a while by the disturbances in Ashanti, received a fresh impetus from the progress of the railway, and general improvement in means of transport. The amount of gold exported in 1904, viz., £345,608, was greatly in excess of any previous year.

Native manufactures are insignificant. Cloths are woven in many parts of the country, for the most part of English spun yarn, but in the northern districts occasionally of thread manufactured from the indigenous cotton plant. Narrow strips of four to six inches are woven on a rough hand loom, and stitched together to make clothes of various sizes. Gold and brass are worked by native smiths; canoes are made on the coast rivers; pottery for domestic purposes is made by hand. Salt is roughly prepared from the lagoons, and sent up country to the markets of the Northern Territories. Fishing is extensively carried on along the coast, and large quantities of sun-dried fish are sent to the villages and markets of the interior.

Agriculture is the staple occupation of the interior. The chief food crops are yam, cassava, maize, plantain, and, in some districts, rice. The soil is very productive, and the methods of cultivation crude.

#### ASHANTI.

Ashanti is inhabited by a large number of confederated tribes, each having its own king, but from time immemorial the King of Kumassi was recognised as the king paramount of the confederation. As king paramount, he succeeded to what was known as the "golden stool," the ceremony of enstoolment lasting several weeks, and being observed by the performance of native customs, which in times past consisted largely in the sacrifice of slaves.

In 1873 the King of Ashanti invaded the British protectorate with a large army, but was defeated by Sir Garnet, now Viscount, Wolseley.

In 1894, Prempeh, who was then King of Kumassi, assumed a threatening attitude, and an expedition was made against him. Prempeh made submission, but, failing to comply with the terms dictated, was brought to the coast as a political



prisoner. A Resident was at the same time installed at Kumassi, and thus commenced an entirely new departure in the relations of the Gold Coast Colony with Ashanti.

In 1900 the governor visited Kumassi, and was there besieged by the Ashantis, the town being closely invested. Provisions ran short, and a part of the garrison, with the governor, cut their way out; the rest were relieved by Colonel (afterwards Sir J.) Willcocks, after severe fighting. The Ashantis were subsequently thoroughly routed.

An Order of the King-in-Council, dated September 26th, 1901, defined the boundaries of Ashanti, annexed it to His Majesty's dominions, and provided for its administration under the Government of the Gold Coast.

### THE NORTHERN TERRITORIES.

The territories in the "hinterland" of the Gold Coast, to the north of Ashanti, were in 1897, constituted a separate district, with the above title, and placed in charge of a Commissioner. Serious difficulties then arose as to the settlement of the boundaries with adjacent French and German territory, but these have been disposed of by conventions and local delimitations. Great Britain thus secured a large territory lying beyond the forest belt.

### LAGOS.

The Colony of Lagos is situated on the Bight of Benin, and consists of the coast line from the boundary of Dahomey on the west to the Southern Nigerian boundary, Lagos Island (the capital), Ebute Metta, the adjacent town on the mainland, and Iddo Island, lying between the two.

Lagos Island has an area of  $3\frac{3}{4}$  square miles, and the whole colony about 3,420 square miles, and the colony and protectorate about 24,500 square miles.

The port is 4,279 miles from Liverpool and 1,203 miles from Freetown. At this part of the West Coast a series of low islands runs along the coast, separating the mainland from the sea, and forming numerous lagoons and creeks. Along these lagoons steamers ply, without entering the ocean, and the only opening for many miles to the sea is at Lagos. Vessels drawing more than 10 feet 6 inches cannot safely get through the bar; passengers are transferred into tenders by means of surf boats, and the vessels proceed with most of their cargoes to Forcados, a distance of 200 miles, and there tranship into tenders.

Lagos town, including Ebute Metta, has now about 42,000 inhabitants, and is the largest town on the whole West African coast. Epe is probably the largest town in the colony outside Lagos, population about 16,000. In the interior Abeokuta and Ibadan are believed to contain about 160,000 and 200,000 inhabitants respectively.

A railway has been constructed from Iddo Island to Ibadan, a distance of  $123\frac{1}{2}$  miles, and was opened to the public in March, 1901. The terminus is on Iddo Island, where a fine station has been erected, and is connected by bridges with the mainland and with Lagos. The line, excluding the bridges at Lagos, cost about £6,000 a mile.

*History.*—The King of Lagos (Kosoko) having refused to co-operate in putting down the slave trade, was expelled by a British force, in 1851, and his cousin placed on the throne, by whom a treaty was concluded under which he bound himself to put down the slave trade. A consul was appointed, but the treaty was not fully adhered to, and the king was induced on the 6th August, 1861, to cede his possessions to the British Crown in consideration of a pension of £1,000 a year.

Numerous additions to the protectorate have been made of adjoining territories up to 1899. In 1906 it was arranged that, for administrative purposes, Lagos should be merged in Southern Nigeria.

*Climate.*—In 1902 the monthly average shade temperature varied from  $78\cdot4^{\circ}$  the July minimum, to  $84\cdot1^{\circ}$  the April maximum. The rainfall for the year was 45·94 inches.

*Industry.*—There are no manufactures except the weaving of native cloths and mats, boat and canoe-building, and brick-making. A saw mill has been established, and native builders, carpenters, and blacksmiths do fair work.

Fishing is extensively pursued in the island waters, the fish being dried and sent into the interior.

Cotton planting has been commenced under the auspices of the Government, and the prospects are encouraging.

The British Cotton Growing Association have now, by arrangement with the Colonial Office, taken over the management of the industry, and very considerable tracts of land have been drained, cleaned, and planted.

An export trade in corn (maize) has recently sprung up, and is steadily growing.

A small sugar mill has also been erected at Agbowa, in the colony, and there seems a possibility that the sugar cane may be extensively grown in the near future.

Lagos was formerly one of the chief entrepôts for the export of slaves. The harbour, which forms the only safe port along 1,000 miles of coast, and the unrivalled water communication with the interior by means of the network of lagoons and creeks have led to a very extensive trade, amounting, in 1902, to over £2,000,000. The principal exports are palm oil and kernels, cotton goods, rubber, and mahogany. The chief imports are cotton goods, spirits, tobacco, and hardware, nearly the whole trade being with England and Germany, some exports going, however, to Brazil and France.

## SIERRA LEONE.

The Colony of Sierra Leone has a coast line of 210 miles, extending between  $6^{\circ} 55'$  and  $9^{\circ} 2'$  of N. lat., from the territory of the Republic of Liberia on the south-east to French territory on the other side. For the most part the colony consists of a mere strip of land along the coast, but immediately adjoining the colony is the protectorate, the estimated area of which is rather more than 30,000 square miles—about the size of Ireland.

The capital, Freetown, lies on a peninsula about four miles up the Sierra Leone River, at the foot of a chain of hills rising 1,700 feet above the sea. It contains, according to the census of 1901, 34,463 inhabitants, and possesses the best harbour in West Africa. It is an important coaling station and a port of registry.

The configuration and soil of the protectorate vary much in different localities. Some parts are low and swampy, in others the country is mountainous, rising in places to an altitude of over 3,000 feet. Many districts are fertile and well adapted to the growth of oil palms, indiarubber trees and vines, benni-seeds, kola-nuts, gum-producing trees, ginger, rice, and other tropical products. Unlike many regions on the West Coast of Africa, the country is, for the most part, well watered by rivers and running streams.

The population of the protectorate has been estimated between 1,000,000 and 3,000,000.

*History.*—The Colony of Sierra Leone originated in the sale and cession in 1788 by King Nembana and his subordinate chiefs to Captain John Taylor, of His Britannic Majesty's brig "Miro," on behalf of the "free community of settlers, their heirs, and successors, lately arrived from England, and under the protection of the British Government," of a piece of land comprising part of the present colony.

The main purpose of the colony in its inception was to secure a home on the African continent for a party of natives of Africa,

and some others, who from various circumstances had been separated from the countries of their origin, and were struggling waifs in and about London. Somewhat later the colony was much used as a settlement for Africans rescued from slave-ships during the period when England was putting forth her efforts for the suppression of the oversea traffic in slaves. The territory of the colony received additions from time to time by various concessions from the native chiefs.

On August 21st, 1896, a proclamation was issued of a protectorate over the hinterland of Sierra Leone.

*Climate.*—The seasons may be divided into wet and dry ; the former commencing in May and lasting till October. The temperature varies during the year from about 62° to 89°. Tornados or violent thunderstorms occur in the rainy season, especially at its commencement and close. The atmosphere during the rainy season is excessively damp. The rainfall for the year 1903 was 162·01 inches.

The climate of Sierra Leone is unhealthy, especially at the commencement and close of the rains. Malarial fever, sometimes of a very severe kind, is prevalent. The general death-rate was 25·07 for 1902. A large proportion of this is due to the very heavy infantile mortality. Natives of West Africa suffer considerably from malarial fever, but the type is not so severe as among Europeans.

*Industry.*—There are practically no industries at present. The inhabitants of Freetown and the colony generally are traders and shop-keepers, and do little in the way of agriculture beyond the planting of cassava, which forms the staple food of the inhabitants. In the protectorate the inhabitants plant so-called farms, chiefly of rice and cassava, and collect natural products for sale to the various merchants and traders of the colony.

The products from the protectorate which constitute the principal exports are palm-kernels, palm oil, benni-seed, ground-nuts, kola-nuts, india rubber, copal, hides, and ginger. The imports are chiefly spirits, tobacco, cotton goods, furniture, groceries, etc., and hardware. About two-thirds of the total imports in 1902 come from the United Kingdom, which receives about one-third of the exports.

#### NORTHERN NIGERIA.

The Protectorate of Northern Nigeria is bounded on the south by the Protectorates of Lagos and Southern Nigeria, on the west by the French colony Dahomey, on the north by the French Sudan, and on the east by the German Cameroons.



The protectorate includes the Foulah Empire, of which the Sultan of Sokoto is the head, with its nominal dependencies of Kano and other towns of the Hausa States, and various tracts of country inhabited by pagan tribes. The Hausa States of the Foulah Empire are Mahomedan, and are said to have the densest population of any country in the whole African Continent—estimated roughly at about twenty millions. The Foulahs appear to have been a pastoral race, which spread through the territory in the latter half of the eighteenth century. The conquered race, however, maintained their independencies in the broken country, and a chronic struggle was kept up which paralysed development, the Foulahs on the one hand devastating large areas by slave raids, and the pagan tribes retaliating by stopping caravans. The area of the protectorate is about 281,000 square miles. Iddo, the point on the Niger where the boundary between Northern and Southern Nigeria crosses the river, is about 200 miles as the crow flies from the mouth of the river. Lokoja is some fifty miles further up, and is the principal station and garrison with the exception of the headquarters at Zungeru, which is some distance in the interior in the direction of the great town of Kano. Jebba (a small island about a mile long by a quarter mile broad) marks the limit of navigation of the Niger, though steamers have with some risk ascended as far as the foot of the rapids at Fort Goldie, some thirty miles further. The Port of Northern Nigeria is the Forcados river mouth in Southern Nigeria.

At the end of the dry season (at the end of April) and for about three months before, the Niger is only navigable for a short distance beyond Lokoja.

The Niger territories generally were secured to Great Britain by nearly 500 treaties made by the Royal Niger Company.

*History.*—As far back as the seventeenth century British traders have had mercantile depôts on the mouths of the Niger and adjacent rivers and creeks, known as the Oil Rivers, and in these early times the trade was mainly confined to the traffic in slaves. At this epoch the French attempted a settlement at the mouth of the Niger, but were unsuccessful, and during the eighteenth century British interests preponderated. At the beginning of the nineteenth century the exploration of the upper river—which had hitherto been supposed to be identical with the Nile or Congo—began, and Mungo Park traced its course to Boussa (a little above Fort Goldie), where he lost his life in the rapids. Lander, in 1830, demonstrated the identity of Mungo Park's river at Boussa with the Lower Niger, and followed its course to the sea. In the next two decades, 1840–60, efforts were made, both by the British Government and private individuals, as well as by French and German merchants to

develop the trade of the Niger, while our knowledge of the interior was greatly enlarged by the travels of Barth, Clapperton, Allen and others, all British or under British initiation. A consulate was founded at Lokoja, and, at the cost of much money and many lives, some progress seemed to have been made, only to result in failure and fiasco. The pioneer of these efforts was McGregor Laird, who, in 1852, began to establish stations, and to endeavour to secure the country for England; but these were destroyed by natives, and Laird lost both his money and his life. The good results of his work were not, however, entirely lost. The situation in the early seventies was that there were numerous trading towns—English, French and German—in the Oil Rivers, where the trade in palm oil had begun to assume importance, the imports being chiefly confined to “the vilest of spirits, guns and powder.” The expeditions sent by the British Government to the higher river, and the subsidies voted by Parliament, had been withdrawn, and European intercourse with the Niger would have ceased had it not been for the perseverance of four British firms, who during the four months of high water each sent a trading steamer up the river, and soon established a few primitive stations, where the white population of Nigeria lived. These bold pioneers were at the mercy of the powerful chiefs, and gross outrages were from time to time avenged by the despatch of a light draught gunboat. “The rivalry between these firms became so keen, and the importance of turning upon each other the disfavour of the chiefs was so great, that the necessity of white traders holding together for the purposes of defence was overlooked.”

At the close of 1877 Mr. Goldie-Taubman—now Sir G. Taubman Goldie—visited the Niger, and conceived the idea (to quote his own words) “that no lasting advance, either of commerce or civilisation, was possible unless some government were established which would give peace and security both to natives and white men”; in other words that amalgamation of interests and a settled government must replace the chaotic rivalry of traders. Recognising that continuity of government on the spot was an impossibility in the climatic conditions of Nigeria, while a government such as that established by Rajah Brooke in Sarawak would not have a secure international basis, Sir George Goldie determined to secure a Charter for a British Company. After much negotiation the small British interests, which were the only ones existent on the Niger at that date, were amalgamated in 1879. With great energy the new Company (subsequently called the Royal Niger Company) founded stations, sent out a river flotilla, and pushed up the Niger and Benue; but meanwhile the foresight of Gambetta had prompted the establishment of two French companies, which, being

backed by the French Government, acquired a great influence on the Lower Niger. The energy of Sir George Goldie, however, by lavish presents to chiefs, by the increase of the staff and stations, and by keen competition, secured the disappearance of the French flag just in time to announce at the Berlin Conference, in 1885, that the British flag alone flew on the Niger, and to secure to Great Britain the guardianship of the international navigation rights on that river.

The next decade was spent in building up an elaborate organisation, in extending the sphere acquired, and in checking inter-tribal war, pagan sacrifices and slave-raiding. In 1897 the growing hostility of the great Foulah Power culminated in a plan to drive the white men out of the country. The Company had been quietly preparing, and had brought their military force to a high standard of efficiency, and they took the field with some 500 or 600 well-drilled soldiers, led by about 30 British officers, against 20,000 or 30,000 of the enemy, of whom a large proportion were Foulah cavalry, and conquered Sokoto and its dependent territories. Simultaneously with this crisis another, which was to have far-reaching effects, arose. The only indeterminate frontier remaining was that to the west. The Company perceiving, in 1894, that French enterprise contemplated the annexation to Senegal and Dahomey of the Borgu country, sent out Captain F. D. Lugard to negotiate treaties with the king or chiefs of that country. Anticipating the powerful French expeditions by only a few days, he succeeded in making treaties at the capital of Nikki, and with other semi-independent chiefs of districts. Disregarding these prior British treaties, a swarm of French expeditions spread over Borgu, and having obtained a pledge from our Government that Sir George Goldie's powerful expedition, then in the field against the Foulahs, should not advance north of 9°, they invaded Boussa, with which we had a specific treaty of many years' standing, and established themselves on the Niger at several points. At the end of 1897, in view of this situation, the British Government decided to raise a local force, and the task was confided to Colonel F. D. Lugard, who left England in March, 1898. After a period of great tension, during which the British and French troops faced each other, and a conflict was daily imminent, a convention was signed (June 14th) laying down a boundary line to Lake Tchad.

In 1900 the administrative rights and powers of the Company were transferred to the Crown, it being considered that the time had arrived when the serious responsibilities of dealing with the native Powers and the European neighbours should be taken by Her Majesty's Government. A Protectorate was proclaimed, and a High Commissioner appointed, with power to

make laws under the name of "Proclamations." The protectorate has been divided into sixteen provinces, each under a Resident.

A considerable military force under the name of the West African Frontier Force is maintained.

*Climate and Products.*—The lower portion of the territories in the Niger delta has a bad reputation for its climate. In this region are produced the palm oil and palm-kernels, which form a large portion of the exports from the territories.

The regions further inland are stated to be much healthier, except in the Niger valley, while their principal products are palm oil, rubber, hides, ground-nuts, shea butter, ivory, chillies, and various drugs.

The chief imports are cotton goods, earthenware, hardware, powder, salt, silks and woollen goods. The importation of rifles, breech-loading guns, cartridges, etc., as articles of trade is prohibited, as also is the importation of spirits. The only duties are on imports, and are collected at the coast by Lagos and Southern Nigeria, the latter making a contribution to the revenues of Northern Nigeria. Otherwise there is at present little local revenue, and the expenses are chiefly met by a grant voted annually by the Imperial Parliament, which in 1905-6 was £320,000.

#### SOUTHERN NIGERIA.

The Protectorate of Southern Nigeria is bounded on the north-west by the Colony of Lagos, on the north by the Protectorate of Northern Nigeria, and on the north-east and east by the German territories of the Cameroons.

The area of the protectorate is estimated at 51,500 square miles.

The numerous rivers, creeks and estuaries in this part of the West African coast have received the name of the "Oil Rivers," from the fact of their producing the bulk of the palm oil, which constitutes the chief export of West Africa. The Niger has formed a huge delta with a coast line of over 200 miles. The coast district here for a long distance, varying from 20 to 40 miles inland, is a mere network of "creeks" and "islands."

On the east side is the Calabar estuary, mainly formed by the great Cross River, some 400 or 500 miles in length. The chief town, Calabar, is on this river.

The inhabitants are typical negroes, and though now divided into several distinct tribes, appear to have had a common



origin. The tribes are all more or less cannibalistic, cannibalism being deeply associated with the ceremonial of the old fetish rites, as the "Ju-Ju-Men," or fetish priests, are bound at certain times and under certain conditions to eat human flesh. The missionaries have laboured with considerable success to suppress the practice in the towns where they are stationed.

*History.*—The British protectorate of the Niger districts (Oil Rivers Protectorate) was announced in the *London Gazette* of 5th June, 1885.

By an Order-in-Council, 1893, the protectorate was extended under the name of the Niger Coast Protectorate.

*Climate.*—This resembles that of other parts of West Africa, in being most unhealthy for Europeans. The temperature ranges between  $65^{\circ}$  and  $95^{\circ}$ , there being on the coast no very marked distinction in temperature between the dry and rainy seasons. Tornadoes and violent thunderstorms prevail in the spring and late autumn.

*Industry.*—Besides the oil palm (*Elæis Guineensis*), cotton grows above the delta, and the silk cotton tree is found all over the delta, as well as the tree producing the kola-nut. The ground-nut is widely cultivated in the interior, but not on the coast. Copal gum and other gums are largely produced, and "shea butter," an almost solid vegetable fat, produced from the kernels of the seeds of the *Butyrospermum Parkii*. The castor oil plant is found all over the delta, and the cocoa palm and coffee have been successfully introduced there. Rubber trees abound everywhere, and ebony very largely in the Cross River districts. Elephants and hippopotami abound in the rivers. Considerable coffee plantations have been established. Mahogany and other timber is exported in considerable quantities.

Trade is generally conducted by barter, the native traders purchasing the oil or other produce for European goods, and disposing of it in large quantities to the white trader. The greater part is with Great Britain, the remainder with Havre and Hamburg, but carried principally in British ships. Brass rods form, in some districts, the coinage, the price of cloth being the general standard. Cash is being gradually introduced.

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## EASTERN AFRICA.

Great Britain possesses territory extending from the southern coast of Africa northwards to the shore of Lake Tanganyika, a continuous line of some 1,600 miles ; but she does not hold the whole of the corresponding coast line. North of Natal the Portuguese hold the seaboard, the Mozambique coast, from Delagoa Bay to the mouth of the Zambesi. This territory has a special interest for us because the railway from Delagoa Bay is the shortest way of reaching Johannesburg, and that from Beira, further north, of reaching Bulawayo and Salisbury in Rhodesia. In this part of Africa, the approach to the Great Lake region, Livingstone, Grant, and other early English explorers travelled. North of the Portuguese territory comes the German, stretching up to Mombasa, and inland to the west of the German possession, British Central Africa. The adjustment of the claims of Great Britain and Germany caused much trouble not many years ago. In 1885 Germany seized the mainland opposite Zanzibar ; but in 1890, in consideration of the cession of Heligoland, she withdrew and recognised our influence over the island of Zanzibar and the adjacent territory. Zanzibar is a great trading port, but has long been notorious for slavery and slave traffic. In recent years we have spent £150,000 annually to watch the coast and catch the "dhows" of the Arab dealers. The island itself, however, is not technically included in the East Africa Protectorate, which extends from German East Africa to the confines of Abyssinia. Inland we have Uganda, containing the Lake Victoria Nyanza, and commanding the road to the upper waters of the Nile. Beyond British East Africa comes the Italian protectorate of a part of Somaliland, and north of this our own Somaliland protectorate, with the stronghold of Aden opposite on the Arabian coast.

Thus there are four British protectorates on the east coast, all of recent creation. They are not self-supporting, the annual deficit being made good by votes of the Imperial Parliament (amounting to about £480,000, exclusive of the war expenditure in Somaliland).

The physical features of the east coast resemble those of the west and south. A low plain stretches from the sea for two or three hundred miles inland ; this is succeeded by low moun-

tains, and beyond these lies a high plateau 4,000 to 5,000 feet high, which stretches away over a great part of Central Africa. Along the coast there are hardly any bays or peninsulas; but there is one of the three mighty rivers—the Zambesi, Nile, and Congo—which issue from the very heart of the continent. The Zambesi is reached in some ten days' steaming southwards from Zanzibar. Livingstone sailed up this river, and about a hundred miles from its mouth discovered a tributary falling into it from the north; he followed this up and eventually found himself on the shores of a mighty lake. The tributary is the Shiré, the lake—Lake Nyasa. Lake Nyasa is 350 miles long, and 250 miles from its northern end comes the still longer Lake Tanganyika, 450 miles long. By this route the Victoria Nyanza and the Albert Nyanza Lakes, the sources of the Nile, could be approached more easily than from Zanzibar, the historical gate of equatorial Africa, though now the Uganda Railway, starting from Mombasa displaces the old caravan routes. Lake Nyasa is situated substantially in British Central Africa, Tanganyika in German East Africa, and Victoria and Albert Nyanza in Uganda.

The Zambesi drains an area of over half-a-million square miles, and the surrounding lands are enriched by annual inundations like those of the Nile. Steaming on it is interrupted by numerous rapids. The country on the whole contains little vegetation which reminds the traveller that he is in the tropics. The trees are usually low and thin; the great labyrinthine growths of South America and the dense jungles of India are not found here. The leopard, the hyæna, the lion, the buffalo, the giraffe, the eland, the zebra, the elephant, and the hippopotamus are found, as well as numerous kinds of deer and antelope; in fact, Central Africa is the finest hunting country for big game in the world, and it is anticipated that the Uganda Railway will be largely used by sportsmen on this account.

The African elephant has never been tamed, but has long been hunted for its ivory. The great value of this article—a pair of tusks fetching about £100—has had a singularly bad influence on the country. It contributed more than anything else to the caravan slave traffic. This is conducted by Arab traders at Zanzibar and other places on the coast, and strenuous efforts have been required to keep it down.

The climate in the interior gives little indication of the tropics so far as the temperature is concerned; the plateaux lie at a height of from three to five thousand feet above the level of the sea, and as the thermometer falls one degree for every 300 feet of altitude the temperature is comparatively low except in the direct rays of the sun. Malarial fever, however, is frequent.

One trouble to which East Africa is specially subject is the white ant. It may be the fact that this creature performs the

work done in this country by the worm, of breaking up and manuring the soil, but there is hardly any limit to its depredations. It attacks every kind of dead wood, and a stout article of furniture may be riddled through in a single night. Books, letters and cloth do not escape. However, they act as useful scavengers in other directions. Not a fallen branch is to be seen in the forests, and all forms of decay, animal or vegetable, are silently and quickly swept away. The huge "ant-hills" which are formed by the earth thrown up from subterranean galleries rise to 10 or 15 feet, and are conspicuous like obelisks for miles.





## BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA.

This territory is situated on the shore of Lake Nyasa. This lake empties itself at the southern end into the Shiré River, which falls in the River Zambesi. The British territory is entirely inland, but at Chinde, the only navigable mouth of the Zambesi, there is a small plot of land known as the "British Concession," granted on lease by the Portuguese Government, where goods in transit for the protectorate are landed, stored and transhipped free of duty. The chief town of the protectorate is Blantyre.

In the southern part of British Central Africa a number of Indian traders have begun to establish themselves. There are 463 Europeans. The native population of the whole of British Central Africa is about 3,000,000, but large portions are devoid of a single human inhabitant owing to the fearful devastation caused in the past by slave raids.

The Shiré Province, which is that portion of the protectorate lying between the south shores of Lake Nyasa and the Zambesi, is now governed very much on the lines of a Crown colony. Good roads are being made in all directions, life and property are safe, and the bulk of the European population is congregated here. This province is remarkable for the development of coffee planting which has taken place within the last few years, the coffee grown in the Shiré highlands being of remarkable excellence. Formerly the chief trade on Lake Nyasa was in ivory, and elephants some years ago were fairly abundant all over British Central Africa. At the present date, however, the amount of ivory collected in the protectorate is very small, elephants having been very much thinned by the constant hunting carried on by natives.

Other articles of export from the protectorate are tobacco, oil seeds, rhinoceros horns, hippopotamus teeth, rubber, bees-wax, chillies, rice, etc. The latter article is grown on the shores of Lake Nyasa in great perfection; the cultivation of wheat has been started, and has proved successful; rust, however, is a serious drawback. Oats and barley thrive on the uplands. Experiments in cotton cultivation are giving promising results. Cattle and horses do well in most parts of the protectorate, and there is an excellent market for stock in Southern Rhodesia.

The climate is fairly healthy, but malarial fever is common.

The protectorate was proclaimed in 1891. An English Company (African Lakes Company) had been at work there for fifteen years previously.

## BRITISH EAST AFRICA.

## ZANZIBAR.

The Sultanate of Zanzibar, besides Zanzibar Island, comprised several other islands, and until late years the Sultan's authority extended over a stretch of the coast of East Africa. This authority has, however, been ceded, as regards the coast dominions, to Italy, Great Britain, and Germany respectively, the two former Powers still paying rent for the territory under their protection, whilst Germany has acquired the Sultan's rights by the payment of a sum of £200,000. Zanzibar Island itself, situated in 6° S. latitude, is the largest coralline island on the African coast, being 47 miles long by 20 broad, and contains an area of 640 square miles. The port of Zanzibar is one of the finest in Africa, and has long been the centre of all commerce between India, Arabia, and the mainland. It has an excellent water supply, and is used as a coaling station for His Majesty's Navy.

The climate is bad in the hot season, which lasts from December to March. The thermometer ranges from 77° to 90°, with a mean of 80°, and an annual rainfall of 60 inches.

On the death of the Sultan in August, 1896, the palace was seized by a member of his family, and to compel his submission the palace was bombarded by British warships. Since then the island has been under British control.

The islands are fertile, providing cloves, cocoa-nuts, chillies, and other tropical products, and the exports gathered from the mainland include ivory, rubber, gum, hides, ebony, and tortoise-shell. The principal imports are Manchester cotton goods, hardware, rice (from India), and coal.

The population is roughly estimated at about 200,000, which includes about 10,000 Arabs and the same number of Indians. The total European population numbers nearly 300.

## EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE AND UGANDA.

In 1887 the Sultan of Zanzibar conceded to a British company a strip of coast 100 miles in length, including Mombasa, the finest harbour on the east coast. This territory has been extended westwards as far as the Congo Free State and comprises 750,000 square miles. It includes the Lake Victoria Nyanza.

Uganda is administered separately from East Africa. The British protectorate was proclaimed in 1894. It lies to the north-west of East Africa, and on the north stretches up to the southern limits of the Egyptian Soudan. Between it and Rhodesia and British Central Africa on the south lies only German East Africa, which is thus the only territory not subject to British control on the direct route from "Cape to Cairo."

Uganda itself is separated by about 800 miles from the East Coast of Africa, but the north-easternmost extremity of Victoria Nyanza Lake is not distant more than 580 miles. Over this stretch of country, all of which lies within the British East Africa protectorate, transport was formerly exceedingly difficult, owing to the paucity of inhabitants to act as porters, and stretches of country unhealthy for beasts of burden. Consequently the Imperial Government resolved in 1895 to construct a railway from Mombasa to the north-east corner of Lake Victoria Nyanza. This railway was finished in 1903. It cost over £5,300,000 (£9,500 per mile).

The trade of Uganda is beginning to make a decided increase, and the railway brings numerous European and Indian settlers and merchants. The principal articles of commerce at the present time are ivory, cattle, wild coffee, and india rubber. The country is, however, as a whole, extremely rich in most African commercial products, and promises to become exceedingly prosperous in commerce. Trade already reaches an annual value of about £217,000.

#### SOMALILAND PROTECTORATE.

In 1884 a protectorate was established over the tribes on the Somali coast south-east of Abyssinia. The boundary has been settled by agreements with France, Italy, and King Menelik of Abyssinia. The chief port is Berbera. Area about 68,000 square miles.

Exports consist of skins and hides, sheep and cattle, gums, ostrich feathers, salt, ivory, and gold ingots.

Imports consist of rice, dates, cotton piece goods and shirtings, iron and hardware,

All transport is by camels. There is a weekly steamer service with Aden.

The climate at the coast is trying for Europeans but is healthy in the interior, where an elevation of from 4,500 feet to 6,800 feet is reached.

In 1901-4 there were several engagements with the Somalis, led by a fanatical Mullah, but in 1905 an agreement was entered into between the Government of Italian Somaliland and the Mullah which had the effect of establishing peace.

### 5.—THE MEDITERRANEAN POSSESSIONS.

The places under British administration in the Mediterranean consist of one peninsula—Gibraltar—and two islands—Malta and Cyprus. The two first are strong fortresses situated on and commanding the highway to the East, viâ the Suez Canal, while the possession of Cyprus secures it from being made a naval base by a foreign Power.

Gibraltar and Malta are British colonies acquired by conquest, the former at the commencement and the latter near the close of the hundred years of more or less continuous hostilities with France which ended at Waterloo. Both are not only great fortresses but also important coaling stations and distributing centres of British trade.

Cyprus, on the other hand, is administered by Great Britain in virtue of a Treaty with Turkey concluded in 1878 and is almost entirely agricultural.

#### GIBRALTAR.

Gibraltar is a narrow peninsula running southwards from the south-east coast of Spain; it consists of a long, high mountain and a low, flat, sandy plain to the north of it. Its greatest elevation is 1,439 feet; its area is  $1\frac{7}{8}$  square miles; and its population, exclusive of the garrison, is about 19,000.

The peninsula forms the east side of a bay four or five miles across, which affords good anchorage for the shipping passing through the straits. As an important naval station Gibraltar is strongly fortified, the whole area forming one great citadel, and the commander of its permanent garrison of about 5,000 men is also the governor of the colony. The place is extensively used as a port of call and coaling station by shipping; it is also an entrepôt of the trade between England and the states of North Africa, for which function it has many advantages, among others that it is practically a free port. Extensive harbour works are in progress. The revenue is derived from port dues, the rent of Crown estate in the town, duties upon wine, spirits, beer, and tobacco, and licence duties and fees.

There is no executive council or legislative body. The governor himself exercises all the functions of government and legislation.



*History.*—The rock of Gibraltar remained under the dominion of the Moors until the fifteenth century, when it was incorporated with the Spanish kingdom of Granada. It was captured by the British forces in 1704 and ceded to Great Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. From 1779 to 1783 it was unsuccessfully besieged by the French and Spanish.

## MALTA.

The Maltese Islands form a group in the Mediterranean Sea, about 58 miles from the nearest point of Sicily. The area of Malta is about  $91\frac{1}{2}$  square miles; that of Gozo about 25 square miles, and that of Comino about one square mile. The whole group is about half the area of the Isle of Man.

The climate is equable and very healthy in winter. In August the heat at the sea level approaches that experienced in the tropics. The nights, however, are pleasant and cool, except during the prevalence of the sirocco wind. The annual rainfall varies from 10 to 20 inches. There is no river or rivulet in the island, the water drainage becoming absorbed in the porous sandstone beds, and finding its way through underground channels and aqueducts.

The island is highly cultivated; its principal products are cotton, potatoes, and corn; the vine is grown; oranges of very superior quality and figs are abundant; honey of a superior kind is also produced; and early crops of potatoes and onions are exported to England. Many cattle, sheep, horses and goats are reared.

Malta is the principal naval station in the Mediterranean, and is strongly fortified. The population, exclusive of the garrison, was about 185,000 at the 1901 census. The chief town and capital is Valetta, which with its suburbs has a population of 40,406. It is a port of call for most of the Mediterranean lines of steamers and does a large coaling and entrepôt trade.

The inhabitants of the country districts resemble the southern Italians in appearance, and in some districts show distinct traces of Punic descent. The Maltese dialect, which is generally spoken, is of Semitic origin and is held to be derived from the Carthaginian and Arabic tongues. The educated and commercial classes usually speak also Italian or English, or both. The Maltese are remarkably thrifty, hard-working, and industrious, and are excellent seamen and mechanics.

The government is administered by a governor, who is always a military officer of high rank, advised and assisted by an executive council. Legislation is carried on by a council of

government, consisting of ten official and eight elected members, besides the president and vice-president.

There is no direct taxation of any kind. The most important sources of revenue are the customs duties, stamp duty, port dues, and land revenue.

*History.*—The Phœnicians settled in the islands in B.C. 1519. Diodorus Siculus describes Malta and Gozo as most important and prosperous Phœnician colonies. They were afterwards under the dominion of the Greeks, and then of the Carthaginians, and were ultimately occupied by the Romans. During the Roman occupation the shipwreck of St. Paul took place. On the decline of the Roman Empire Malta fell into the hands of the Goths, and then into those of the Saracens, who were expelled in 1090 by Count Roger the Norman. It was under the dominion of the house of Aragon from 1190 until 1530, when it was granted by the Roman Emperor Charles V. to the Order of the Knights of St. John, by whom it was held for more than two centuries.

In 1798, the Grand Master, Hompesch, capitulated to Napoleon Bonaparte, who dispersed the Order. The Maltese however rose against the French, and drove them to take refuge in the towns, where they were closely blockaded by the British fleet, aided by the Maltese, for two years. The French, reduced to extremities, surrendered to the British, and the government was placed in the hands of Great Britain in 1800, and finally annexed to the British Crown by the Treaty of Paris, 1814.

## CYPRUS.

The Island of Cyprus is situated in the easternmost basin of the Mediterranean Sea, about 40 miles from the coast of Syria. Its area is 3,584 square miles, equal to Kent, Sussex and Middlesex combined. It is the third largest island in the Mediterranean, being only exceeded by Sicily and Sardinia. The main topographical features of the island are the northern and southern mountain chains and the great plain of the Mesaoria extending between them across the island from east to west. The rivers are nearly all mountain torrents, dry in summer.

The population is about 237,000, a large majority of whom are members of the Greek Church, and the remainder mostly Moslems.

The chief towns are Nicosia, the capital, with 14,752 inhabitants, Larnaca, with 7,964, and Limassol, with 8,298.

The climate is varied, being hot and dry in the plains in summer, and damp on the sea shore; the climate on the hills inland is bracing and healthy. In winter the temperature rarely falls below freezing point. The rainfall in 1904 was over 20 inches and the island may fairly be described as healthy.

The island is administered by a High Commissioner. There is an executive council and a legislature consisting of six officials and twelve elected members, three chosen by the Mahomedan and nine by the non-Mahomedan inhabitants of the island.

*History.*—Cyprus was colonised by Phœnicians, Egyptians and Greeks. Its ancient history is long and eventful. When the Roman Empire was divided into east and west, Cyprus was governed by lieutenants of the Byzantine Emperors until 1191, when Richard I. of England occupied it for a short time. The island was ruled by the Lusignan family from 1192 until 1489, when it was yielded to the Republic of Venice. Venice ruled the island until 1570–71, when the Ottoman Turks captured it.

The island remained under the government of the Sultans of Constantinople until 1878. In that year, by a convention with Turkey, Great Britain engaged to join the Sultan in defending his Asiatic possessions against Russia in certain contingencies, and the Sultan “in order to enable England to make necessary provision for executing her engagements,” consented “to assign the Island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered by England” until Russia should restore to Turkey Kars and the other conquests made by her in Armenia during the last war. Later in the year a supplementary agreement was signed, giving to Her Majesty’s Government for the term of the occupation, full powers for making laws for the government of the island and for the regulation of its commercial and consular relations free from the Porte’s control.

The convention further stipulated that Great Britain should pay to Turkey every year what was then the annual surplus of revenue over expenditure, which was in due course put at £92,800. This obligation has ever since been like a millstone round the neck of Cyprus, for whatever was the case under Turkey, there is no such annual surplus under British administration; there is always a real surplus, with which the island would be satisfactorily prosperous, but it is swept away by the “tribute,” and a grant-in-aid has had to be voted by the Imperial Parliament almost every year to make up the deficit. The obligation is not affected by the fact that the money does not now go to Turkey but to its creditors. As a result of this burden, although order and justice have been

established, material progress was for a long time very slow, recently however a railway and harbour works have been constructed.

*Industries.*—Cyprus was once famous for its mines, but these have not been worked in recent times. Gypsum is exported both in a raw state and in the form of plaster of paris.

The main industry of the island is agriculture, the products consisting chiefly of cereals, carobs, wine and spirits, cotton, linseed, aniseed, silk, cheese, wool, fruit, and vegetables. Cattle, mules and donkeys are exported, mainly to Egypt. Sponge fishing is carried on under the control of the Agricultural Board, who hold a monopoly of the industry. The planting of mulberry, olive, carob and other fruit trees is increasing rapidly. Locusts, which formerly did great damage, have by vigorous measures been brought under control.





## 6.—THE EASTERN POSSESSIONS.

Leaving out of account the Indian Empire, the British possessions in the East are all of comparatively recent acquisition, only one dating from before the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars when so many colonies were wrested by Great Britain from France and her allies. But her present possessions are by no means the first which England acquired in this part of the world.

The successes of the Turks in the fifteenth century, completed by their conquest of Egypt in 1519, drew a screen between Europe and the East, and, by placing the Eastern trade under Turkish control, greatly damaged the Mediterranean trading states. Hence to a large extent came the efforts to find a new route to the East, which in 1497 resulted in Vasco de Gama's voyage viâ the Cape of Good Hope to Calicut, which he reached in 1498. Other expeditions soon followed. The Arabs, then the principal traders in the Indian Ocean, did their best to influence the native rulers against the Portuguese interlopers and the rival merchants quickly came to open hostilities. The Portuguese soon proved the stronger; they captured Goa (1510), and Malacca (1511), and entirely wrested the Eastern trade from the Arabs. Portuguese settlements and factories soon dotted the shores of the Indian Ocean and the East Indian Archipelago, and a footing was obtained in China. The Portuguese monopoly of the trade of the East lasted about a hundred years. Its fall was due to the Dutch and was one of the results of the union of the crowns of Spain and Portugal in 1580. Previously the Dutch had been content to purchase and distribute throughout Northern Europe the Eastern produce brought by the Portuguese to Lisbon. When however Portugal became part of the dominions of their implacable enemy, Philip II., the Dutch were no longer welcomed at Lisbon, and in 1598 their trade with that port was entirely prohibited. Having either to acquiesce in the loss of their European coasting trade or to challenge the Portuguese monopoly in the Eastern seas, the Dutch chose the latter alternative, and were successful in their challenge. The Portuguese power languished, for the wealth of the country and the profits of its Eastern trade were drained from it in support of Philip's fruitless attempt to bring the Netherlands to submit to the Spanish yoke, and the Dutch found little

difficulty in establishing themselves in the East. Organised under the Dutch East India Company, they at first confined their trade to Java and the eastern islands, but about 1635 they commenced to attack the Portuguese settlements on the coasts of India. Malacca was taken in 1641 and the conquest of the Portuguese settlements in Ceylon was completed in 1658. By this time the Dutch had practically driven the Portuguese out of the Eastern seas. They had made a settlement at the Cape; they had planted factories on the shores of the Persian Gulf, along the Malabar and Coromandel coasts of India, and in Bengal, Burma and Cochin China.

But the Dutch and Portuguese were not the only European traders in the East. England had entered the field about the same time as the Dutch, though her progress had been less rapid than that of her Continental neighbour. Drake in his voyage round the world in 1577-80, had touched at the Moluccas, and had been followed in 1588 by Cavendish. In 1592, three years before the Dutch commenced their attack on the Portuguese monopoly, Captain Lancaster visited Penang on a trading voyage. The result of these voyages and the possibilities of wealth disclosed by them was the founding in 1600 of the East India Company of London, which in 1601 sent out their first expedition under the command of Sir James (formerly Captain) Lancaster. Sumatra and the Moluccas were visited and a factory established at Bantam in Java. The results of their trading were very satisfactory, and after 1607 voyages were made regularly.

Like the Dutch, the English at first confined themselves to the Malay Archipelago, and they did not visit the west coast of India till 1607, nor the east coast till 1612.

This active competition did not suit the views of the Dutch, and they did their utmost to prevent the English from trading among the islands. The contest went on for over three-quarters of a century and was marked by many variations of fortune. The "massacre" of Amboyna (1623), when ten Englishmen were executed by the Dutch, and the establishment of the headquarters of the East India Company at Surat in 1631, led to the decline of Bantam which had hitherto been the chief station of the company. The difficulties of contending against the Dutch among the eastern islands, and the prospects which were opening out before them in India gradually led the company to devote more and more of its attention to that country, and the Indian Empire was the ultimate result. Bantam was taken by the Dutch in 1682, and the English lost all footing in Java, though they long retained stations at Bencoolen and other places on the coast of Sumatra. The East India Company also made various unsuccessful attempts during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries to gain a footing in Borneo,

an island which was to a large extent neglected by the Dutch. The Seven Years' War saw a successful attack by the East India Company on the Philippines, Manila being captured in 1762, but the islands were given back to Spain at the Peace of Paris in 1763. In the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars, Holland, as a dependency of France, was exposed once more to English attack, and Malacca, the Moluccas and Java were all captured. At the conclusion of peace, these places were restored to Holland, but Ceylon, taken in 1795-6, remained in English hands.

Meanwhile, in 1785, the Island of Penang had been ceded to the East India Company by the Rajah of Kedah, and in 1800 the neighbouring strip of the mainland—now known as Province Wellesley—was similarly acquired.

During the second half of the eighteenth century and the early years of the nineteenth, the chief rivals of England in the East were not the Dutch but the French. Unlike the Dutch, the French had devoted their attention mainly to India and the western islands of the Indian Ocean. The Anglo-French struggle in the east was for the most part fought out in India, but the ultimate success of the English was not limited to that peninsula. Seychelles and Mauritius had been used by the French as bases of attack on English trade, and both of these were captured, the former in 1794, and Mauritius in 1810.

Although Malacca was given back to the Dutch in 1818, in 1824 it again passed into British possession, this time by treaty and in exchange for the East India Company's settlements at Bencoolen and elsewhere in Sumatra. By this compact the English were given a free hand in the Malay Peninsula.

In 1819 Singapore, then practically uninhabited, was acquired by treaty from the Sultan of Johore; in 1846 Labuan was similarly ceded by the Sultan of Brunei; while in 1841 the increasing trade with China and the difficulties placed in the way of European traders by Chinese officialdom led to the acquisition of Hongkong.

Relations more or less close existed with the native states of the Malay Peninsula for many years, until in 1874 British Residents were stationed in the three western states of Perak, Selangor and Sungei Ujong. Negri Sembilan and Pahang followed the example in the eighties, and in 1895 Sungei Ujong and Negri Sembilan were amalgamated, and the four states, Perak, Selangor, the newly constituted Negri Sembilan and Pahang were united in a federation to be administered under the advice of the British Government as the Federated Malay States.

The states of north and north-west Borneo—North Borneo, Brunei and Sarawak—placed themselves under British protection in 1888, a step which had been taken by Johore in 1885.

Lastly, in 1898 Wei-hai-wei was leased from China.

Three other possessions in the East may here be mentioned which are governed from India, namely, Aden, acquired 1838, the Island of Perim, acquired 1857, and Socotra. The two first are important coaling stations at the entrance of the Red Sea. Aden is a peninsula and an entrepôt for trade with Arabia. Socotra, an island 72 miles long by 22 broad, is on the direct route between the Red Sea and India and has been under British protection since 1886. The Kuriyan-Muriyan Islands off the south-east coast of Arabia were ceded to Great Britain in 1854 by the Sultan of Muskat for the purpose of landing the Red Sea telegraph cable.

A characteristic of our Eastern colonies is that they are all islands or peninsulas, and with the exception of Seychelles they are all on one or other of the great sea trade routes. Steamers bound for the Far East or for Australia pass Aden and Perim and call at Colombo, the capital of Ceylon. The former then go on to Penang, Singapore and Hongkong, while Wei-hai-wei is passed on the way to Chifu, Pekin, or Port Arthur. If instead of the Suez Canal, the Cape route is chosen, Port Louis, the capital of Mauritius, is on the route to India or the Straits of Malacca and is the only good harbour available. The favoured situations of Hongkong, Singapore and Colombo have made them great commercial ports, the trade of which is steadily growing. Behind Hongkong lie the great city of Canton, and the teeming millions of the two Kwang provinces. Singapore serves the Federated Malay States, with their rich tin mines and tropical produce, as well as the neighbouring islands. Colombo has at its back the tea districts of the Central and Western Provinces, while Mauritius, though comparatively small, exports immense quantities of sugar—mainly to India.

In all these colonies the manual labour is performed by the coloured races; in Mauritius by labourers of Indian birth brought to the colony under "indentures," or of Indian or African origin; in Ceylon by the native Sinhalese or Tamils, or by emigrant Tamils from Southern India; and in the Malay Peninsula by Chinese, Tamils or the native Malays. As the student of British colonies would expect, the presence of a dominant European race and of a non-European population greatly superior in number means a Crown colony system of government. Except in Mauritius—where there are ten members elected out of twenty-seven—all the members of the legislative councils are nominated by the Crown.



## CEYLON.

Ceylon is an island in the Indian Ocean, off the southern extremity of India, from which it is separated by the Gulf of Mannar and Palk Strait. Between these two, and almost forming a causeway between the island and the continent, there runs a ridge consisting of Ramiswaram Island on the west and Mannar Island on the east, joined by a chain of shoals and islets known as Adam's Bridge.

The area of Ceylon is 25,481 square miles or about equal to that of Belgium and Holland. Its length from north to south is 270 miles, and its greatest width is 137 miles. It is pear-shaped in outline ; the central district consists of a circular mountain plateau about 4,000 square miles in area. To the south-east and north the hills break off abruptly, but on the west and south-west the country between the mountains and the sea is hilly and undulating. The northern half of the island and the south and east coast districts consist of level plains of small elevation. Across the central plateau from north to south runs a dividing range of mountains whose highest peak (Pidurutalagala) reaches 8,296 feet. Lower, but more celebrated, is Adam's Peak, on the south-west edge of the plateau. This is 7,353 feet in height, and on its summit is the hollow which is revered alike by Buddhists as the footprint of Buddha, by the Mahomedans as the footprint of Adam, and by Brahmans as the footstep of Siva.

The coasts of Ceylon are low, and throughout a great part of their length, especially on the eastern side of the island, are fringed with lakes and lagoons. There are, however, few well-marked indentations, and the only good natural harbour is at Trincomalee, which is on the wrong side of the island for commercial purposes. The harbour at Galle, in the south-west, was for many years a well-known port of call for all vessels plying from England to the Bay of Bengal, Australia and the Far East ; but it is dangerous, and since the construction of a large artificial harbour at Colombo, the capital has become the chief port of the colony.

Most of the rivers take their rise in the central plateau, but none are navigable by ships and only a few by boats for a short distance. The chief of the latter are the Gindura, the Kaluganga, and the Kelaniganga on the south-west, at the mouths of which are situated Galle, Kalutara and Colombo respectively. The longest river is the Mahaweliganga, which finds its way into the Bay of Trincomalee.

*Population.*—The population of Ceylon in 1901 was 3,576,990. Of these about 9,000 are Europeans, 23,000 Burghers and Eurasians, 225,000 Moormen, 11,000 Malays, 2,334,000 Sinha-

lese, and 955,000 Tamils. The Buddhists number more than half the population, and there are about 750,000 Hindus, 250,000 Mahomedans, and 360,000 Christians (mostly Roman Catholics). The population of the chief towns was as follows: Colombo (the capital) 158,093, Galle 37,326, Jaffna 33,860, Kandy 26,522, and Moratuwa 29,133.

There are about 400,000 Indian coolies on the tea and other estates; they are not engaged under indenture, but are free to leave on giving a month's notice.

*Climate.*—The climate is on the whole healthy for a tropical colony; the heat in the plains, which is nearly the same throughout the year, is far less oppressive than in Hindustan. The mean annual temperature at Colombo is about 81° F.; at Kandy, the hill capital, at an elevation of 1,665 feet above sea level it is 76° F.: and at Nuwara Eliya, the sanatorium of the island and over 6,000 feet high, it is 58 F., and at night in the cold season the thermometer falls to freezing point. The rainfall is small for the tropics, except among the mountains and in the south-west. There are practically two seasons, the south-west monsoon, during which the rainfall is confined mainly to the south-west; and the north-east monsoon, during which the rains are more equally distributed. The smallness of the rainfall in the northern half of the island renders irrigation necessary for cultivation, especially where the main crop is rice, and the whole of the north-central, north-west and eastern districts are dotted with old irrigation works, some mere village tanks, others "giant" tanks, which irrigated many thousands of acres. Many of these works which had fallen into decay during the Middle Ages have been restored during the last forty years.

*Vegetation.*—The flora of Ceylon is similar in character to that of Southern India, but a considerable number of species are found which are peculiar to the island. The island was once almost covered with forests, and much still remains in the sparsely inhabited north-central and eastern districts. Many trees yielding ornamental, cabinet, or building timber are found—such as ebony, satinwood, halmilla, and ironwood.

*Animals.*—Wild animals are numerous and include elephants, leopards, bears, wild boar, deer, monkeys, sloth, jackal, and buffalo. A large area in the southern province has been reserved as a sanctuary for game. The tiger, hyæna and wolf, though common in India, are not found in Ceylon.

*History and Constitution.*—The authentic history of the island begins at the fifth century B.C., when an Aryan invasion from the valley of the Ganges established the Sinhalese dynasty.

Buddhism was introduced in the third century B.C., and from that time this faith has been preserved in comparative purity, exempt from the Hindu persecutions which drove it from India. About the same time the Tamils from Southern India began to settle in the island. Introduced in the first place as mercenaries, two of their leaders in 237 B.C. made themselves supreme, and soon after, a Tamil invader named Elala seized the throne. From that time onward for about 600 years the island was periodically invaded by the Tamils who settled in the north. The invaders gradually drove the Sinhalese southwards till they had to take refuge in the mountain districts and the southern part of the island.

Ceylon was visited in early days by the Greeks, Romans, and Venetians, and in 1505 the Portuguese formed settlements on the west and south of the island. During the twenty years from 1638 to 1658 they were dispossessed by the Dutch. In 1795-6 the British took possession of the Dutch settlements in the island, which were then annexed to the Presidency of Madras, but five years later, in 1801, Ceylon was constituted a separate colony. The Kandyans in the mountains had remained independent of both Portuguese and Dutch, but in 1803 the English occupied Kandy. The garrison was massacred soon after, and in 1815 a second expedition penetrated into the heart of the hills, the king was deposed and banished, and the territory annexed. In 1817, and again in 1848, the Kandyans rose in revolt, but the latter outbreak was easily suppressed, and since then the natives have contentedly accepted English rule.

The government is administered by a governor, aided by an executive council of five members. The legislative council consists of 17 members, of whom nine are officials and eight are nominated unofficials. Of the latter, one is chosen from the Kandyan community, one from the low country Sinhalese, one from the Tamils, one from the Mahomedans, and one from the Burghers. The other three are selected to represent the mercantile community, the planters, and the general European community respectively.

For purposes of general administration, the island is divided into nine provinces presided over by Government agents who, with their assistants and native headmen, form the channel of communication between the Government and the people.

*Industries and Resources.*—Ceylon is mainly an agricultural country. Fishing, plumbago mining, and mining for gems support a number of its people, but the enormous majority are engaged either in the cultivation of the soil or in industrial work dependent upon agriculture such as the manufacture of tea, oil making, and basket weaving. About one-fifth of the area of the island is under cultivation. Cocoa-nuts and rice

are the crops most extensively grown (cocoa-nuts 864,296 acres and rice 647,910 acres). Tea comes third, with over 400,000 acres; but this, unlike cocoa-nuts and rice, is mainly grown under European supervision and for export. Other products are cinnamon, cocoa, dry grain, tobacco, cardamoms, citronella, and cinchona. Rubber is being planted largely, and is already becoming an important Ceylon product.

Under the Portuguese and Dutch, cinnamon formed the typical Ceylon product, and it was this spice which attracted European trade. From 1840 to 1880, coffee was the mainstay of Ceylon, but during the seventies the plants were attacked by disease, and since then its production has been small. Its place was more than taken by tea, and Ceylon exports over 150,000,000 lbs. annually and supplies about 35 per cent. of the tea imported into the United Kingdom.

The other exports are cocoa-nut products (such as oil, kernels, coir, copra, and dessicated cocoa-nut) and cocoa, cinnamon, cardamoms, citronella oil, plumbago, tobacco, and cinchona bark. The imports are mainly rice from India, and textiles and coal from the United Kingdom.

The pearl fisheries for which Ceylon is famous belong to the Colonial Government and are carried on along the banks which fringe the west coast of the island.

The chief mineral product is plumbago. Iron is plentiful, but is not worked owing to lack of fuel. Sapphires, rubies, cat's-eyes, and other precious stones are found in many places, especially around Ratnapura.

#### THE MALDIVES.

The Maldiv Islands lying 400 miles west of Ceylon are a dependency of the colony. The population, which is about 30,000, is under the rule of a Sultan. The chief products are, millet, fruit, and the produce of the cocoa-nut palm.

#### THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

The colony of the Straits Settlements, apart from two distant islands which have been annexed to it for convenience of administration, consists of two islands and three coast districts along the western coast of the Malay Peninsula and bordering the straits of Malacca, through which most of the commerce between China and the countries to the west passes. The total area of the colony, including the outlying islands, is about equal to that of Kent.

The climate varies but little in temperature throughout the year, averaging about 80° F. There are no well-marked rainy



and dry seasons, the rainfall being large and fairly evenly distributed throughout the year. The population in 1901, was 572,249, of which Singapore contributed 228,555.

SINGAPORE is an island one-third the size of the Isle of Wight and somewhat similar in shape, situated at the southern extremity of the Malay Peninsula, from which it is separated by a narrow strait about three-quarters of a mile in width. There are a number of small islands adjacent to it which form part of the settlement. The seat of government and port is the town of Singapore, one of the most important ports in the world. It is strongly fortified and contains a garrison.

PENANG is an island, half the size of Singapore, situated at the northern entrance to the Straits of Malacca. Its chief town is Georgetown, which is an important port and the outlet of the produce of the Federated Malay States. The island is separated from the mainland of the Malay Peninsula by a strait from two to ten miles broad.

PROVINCE WELLESLEY is a strip of territory, 288 square miles in area, on the mainland opposite Penang, of which settlement it forms part. It averages eight miles in width and extends 45 miles along the coast.

MALACCA is situated on the west coast of the peninsula between Singapore and Penang, about 110 miles from the former and 240 from the latter. It consists of a strip of territory about 42 miles along the coast and from 8 to 25 miles in breadth, with an area of 659 square miles. The chief town, which is also called Malacca, is situated on the coast.

THE DINDINGS (area about 265 square miles) include the island of Pangkor and a strip of territory opposite on the mainland about 80 miles from Penang. Lumut, the headquarters on the mainland, possesses a fine harbour with deep anchorage.

THE COCOS OR KEELING ISLANDS were taken possession of by the British in 1857, and were subsequently annexed to the settlement of Singapore. They lie about 700 miles south-west of Batavia, and form a landing place for the telegraph cable connecting Australia and South Africa. The largest island is 5 miles by a  $\frac{1}{4}$  mile. They contain cocoa-nut plantations, and copra oil and nuts are exported. The population is about 700.

CHRISTMAS ISLAND is 200 miles south-west of Java, and to the east of the Cocos group. It is 12 miles long by 5 wide, wooded, and with about 1,100 inhabitants. There is a rich deposit of phosphate of lime on the island, which is worked by a company. It was annexed in 1888, and was formally united with the Settlement of Singapore in 1900.

*History.*—Malacca, known as an important independent state from the oldest times, is one of the oldest European settlements in the East, having been taken possession of by the Portuguese in 1511, and held by them till 1641, when the Dutch, after frequent attempts, were successful in driving them out. The settlement remained under the government of the Dutch till 1795, when it was taken possession of by the English, and held by them till 1818, at which date it was restored to the Dutch, and finally passed into our hands in pursuance of the treaty with Holland of 1824, in exchange for the East India Company's settlement at Bencoolen, on the west coast of Sumatra.

Penang was the first British settlement on the Malay Peninsula, having been ceded to the British by the Rajah of Kedah in 1785 for an annual rent of \$6,000. In 1800, in consequence of the prevalence of piracy on the shores of the mainland opposite Penang, a strip of the coast was acquired from the Rajah and was called Province Wellesley. This has been subsequently enlarged from time to time. This province is in a high state of cultivation, the chief products cultivated being sugar, rice, and cocoa-nuts. In 1805 Penang was made a separate Presidency under the East India Company, of equal rank with Madras and Bombay. In 1826 Singapore and Malacca were incorporated with it under one government, Penang still remaining the seat of government. In 1836 the seat of government was transferred to Singapore.

The island of Pangkor and the Sembilan Islands were ceded by Perak in 1826, with a view to the suppression of piracy, but no use was made of the cession at the time. In 1874 the cession of these islands was confirmed by the Treaty of Pangkor, by which a strip of territory in the mainland opposite also became British, and the whole now forms, under the name of the Dindings Territory, an outlying portion of the Settlement of Penang.

There is some evidence of Singapore having been an important trading centre in the 12th and 13th centuries. Thenceforth the island was scarcely inhabited until it was taken possession of by Sir Stamford Raffles in 1819, by virtue of a treaty with the Johore princes. It was at first subordinate to Bencoolen in Sumatra, but in 1823 it was placed under the government of Bengal; it was as above stated, incorporated in 1826 with Penang and Malacca, and placed under the Governor and Council of the Incorporated Settlements.

The government consists of a governor, aided by an executive and legislative council. The latter body consists of nine official members and seven unofficial members, of whom two are nominated by the Chambers of Commerce of Singapore and Penang.

*Trade*—The trade of the colony is enormous. The shipping (exclusive of native craft) which entered and cleared in 1904, was over 18,250,000 tons, of which nearly 12,000,000 were British. In the same year the imports amounted to over \$368,750,000, and the exports to \$312,500,000. The ports are free\* from duties on imports and exports, and the only tax to which shipping is liable is a small impost in support of the numerous lighthouses on the coast.

The chief exports are tin, sugar, pepper, nutmegs, mace, sago, tapioca, rice, buffalo hides and horns, rattans, gutta, india-rubber, gambier, gum, coffee, dyestuffs, and tobacco. Of these the only articles produced to any considerable extent in the colony are tapioca and rice (chiefly in Malacca and province Wellesley), and sugar (in province Wellesley).

The chief imports are coal, cotton, opium, hardware, provisions, petroleum, and tin ore. The main trade is with the United Kingdom, India, Hongkong, the United States, the Dutch Indies, Siam, and the Federated Malay States.

The prosperity of the Straits Settlements is largely due to the Chinese community, which forms a large proportion of the population, and contains many of the wealthiest merchants and largest traders of the colony.

## THE FEDERATED STATES OF THE MALAY PENINSULA.

The intimate connection of the Straits Settlements with the native states of the Malay Peninsula dates from the year 1874, though for many years previous relations of a semi-commercial, semi-political character had existed.

For some years prior to 1874 the anarchy prevailing in some states in the Malay Peninsula, and especially in Perak, was a source of disquiet to the Straits Settlements community, and a hindrance to the prosperity of British traders.

In the beginning of that year matters were brought to a crisis in Perak, and, by the Pangkor Treaty, British Residents were stationed in the States of Perak, Selangor, and Sungei Ujong, to advise their rulers respecting the collection of revenue and general administration.

The federal state of Negri Sembilan (or nine states) was constituted in 1889, and a Resident appointed, and in 1895 Sungei Ujong was incorporated in it.

Pahang was placed under British protection and a Resident appointed in 1888.

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\* With the exception of import duties on spirits. The right to levy these is farmed out.

The Residents of these four states are assisted by a staff of European officers, whose duty it is to carry out the executive functions. The supreme authority in each state is vested in the state council, consisting of the highest native chiefs presided over by the Sultan or ruler of the state, who is assisted by the Resident. In the three older states there are also Chinese and non-official European representatives.

The British Residents are appointed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies, and are subordinate to the Resident-General and to the High Commissioner for the Federated Malay States, who is also the Governor of the Straits Settlements. The administration of each state is carried on, as far as may be, on the model of a Crown colony.

In addition to the above states, the state and territory of Johore, with which a treaty had been made as early as the year 1855, entered into closer relations with the colony in 1885, when the Sultan placed his foreign relations in the hands of the British Government and agreed to receive a British Agent, who however has not yet been appointed.

In 1895 a treaty was signed by the rulers of the four states other than Johore, by which they agreed to constitute their countries a federation (to be known as the Federated Malay States), to be administered under the advice of the British Government. A Resident-General was appointed to control the Residents of each state, and to be the means of communication between the State Governments and the High Commissioner.

The states give each other material assistance in men and money, the wealthier states assisting those in want of help, all moneys so advanced being considered as loans, and they maintain a force of Indian troops—the Malay States Guides—for service throughout the states; and should Great Britain be at war with any foreign Power, they have engaged to supply a portion of these troops on requisition for the defence of the colony of the Straits Settlements.

*Perak.*—Perak is the most northerly of the protected states on the west coast, touching Province Wellesley on the north and Selangor on the south. About 1850 the discovery of tin in Larut was followed by the immigration of Chinese in great numbers. Since the appointment of a British Resident in 1874, the record of the state has been one of remarkable progress, due to the maintenance of peace and order by the British officers, and the consequent rapid development of the tin mining industry which is mainly in the hands of Chinese.

The state is well watered, the Perak, with its tributaries being the most important river. The mountains on the east



boundary, form part of the main range of the Peninsula, and rise to a height of 8,000 feet.

The chief export is tin. Sugar and rice are extensively grown, and tea and coffee plantations have been opened with success. The cultivation of rubber is now engaging great attention, and considerable areas have been planted with trees.

*Selangor.*—Selangor adjoins Perak along its southern frontier. In this state, as in Perak, the appointment of a British Resident in 1874 followed on the anarchy arising out of disputes connected with the tin mines.

Where the state touches the central range of the Peninsula, there are several peaks of over 5,000 feet, and one of 6,200 feet.

The chief town is Kwala Lumpor, which is the largest town on the mainland of the Peninsula. The chief industry of the state is tin mining. Coffee planting, under European supervision, which made good progress for some years, has received a severe check owing to the fall in the price of Liberian coffee; rice, pepper, and other products have been grown with success. Of recent years the cultivation of rubber has made great strides, especially in the Klang district, where large areas are being planted. Cocoa-nuts also are receiving attention.

*Negri Sembilan.*—The federal state of the Negri Sembilan lies to the south-east of Selangor, and consists of Sungei Ujong, Jelebu, Johol, and Rembau, and of six smaller states. The headquarters of the Resident are at Seremban.

The revenue is derived mainly from tin and agriculture. The miners are Chinese, the Malay population being almost entirely agricultural. Coffee has been successfully cultivated, and there are many large tapioca and gambier estates. Rubber has also been extensively planted in recent years. There is also a considerable production of rice. The whole state is well watered and a great part of it is mountainous.

*Pahang.*—Pahang, the largest of the protected native states, is on the east coast of the Peninsula.

It is drained by one of the largest rivers in the Peninsula, the Pahang River.

The country is rich in gold, tin, and galena, but is in a much more backward state of development than the western members of the federation. The capital has hitherto been Pekan, near the mouth of the Pahang River, where the Sultan still resides, but the seat of government has been removed 200 miles up stream to Kuâla Lipis.

LABUAN AND THE BRITISH PROTECTED STATES  
IN NORTH BORNEO.

The north and north-western portions of the large island of Borneo are under British protection, and Labuan, a small island off the north-west coast, and about six miles distant, is a British colony. The rest of Borneo belongs to Holland.

Labuan was ceded to Great Britain by the Sultan of Brunei in 1846. It was then uninhabited; it was occupied two years later. The object of its acquirement was to put a stop to the piracy which prevailed on the coasts. It possesses a good port, Victoria, situate near the south-east corner of the island. Coal deposits exist, and are being worked on a moderate scale. The island is a market for much of the produce of the neighbouring coasts of Borneo and the Sulu Archipelago, such as sago, edible birds' nests, camphor, gutta-percha, rubber, rattans, tortoiseshell and bêche-de-mer. (Edible birds' nests are made by a kind of swallow from a gelatinous substance secreted by the bird, and are sent in great numbers to China where soups are made from them. Bêche-de-mer is a species of sea cucumber, and is used for the same purpose.) The export trade is mainly with Singapore, with which there is regular and frequent communication by steamer.

The inhabitants who numbered 8,411 in 1901 are Malays from Brunei and Chinese. There are only about fifty Europeans.

From 1889 to 1905, the colony was administered by the British North Borneo Company, whose "Principal Representative" was also Governor of Labuan. In view of the desirability of closer relations with Brunei, His Majesty's Government resumed control of the island on 1st January, 1906, and the Governor of the Straits Settlement has been given a commission as Governor of Labuan.

## BRUNEI, NORTH BORNEO AND SARAWAK.

The ancient empire of Brunei once claimed jurisdiction over a great part of Borneo, as well as over part of the Philippines. It has gradually shrunk until it is now only about 4,000 square miles in extent, with a population of about 30,000. From it has been carved, on the east the territories of the British North Borneo Company, and on the west and south the state of Sarawak, which has gradually been enlarged, until it has cut off Brunei from the interior.

The East India Company made more than one attempt to establish a settlement on the coast of Borneo, but were unsuccessful. In 1842 Sir James Brooke obtained the cession of a large area in the west from the Sultan of Brunei, and created an independent state with himself as Rajah. In 1872 a British Company established itself at Sandakan on the east coast, and in 1877-8 the Sultans of Brunei and Sulu ceded the greater portion of the territory now known as North Borneo to a syndicate, through which they were transferred to the British North Borneo Company. Some further additions were afterwards made to the Company's territories. In 1888 agreements were signed by Her Majesty's Government by which the three states were taken under British protection. Towards the end of 1905 a further agreement was made with the Sultan of Brunei, under which he will receive a British Resident and be guided by his advice in the administration of Brunei.

The country occupied by these three states is rich, but at present little developed. It is traversed by numerous rivers, several of which are navigable for considerable distances, and it is separated from Dutch Borneo by mountain ranges. The climate, though tropical, is equable; and the soil when stripped of jungle is found to be well adapted for the growth of almost all tropical products, more particularly tobacco, sugar, coffee, cocoa-nuts, sago, tapioca and pepper. Gold is worked to the extent of over \$1,750,000 in Sarawak, and coal to a small amount in both Sarawak and North Borneo.

The area of Sarawak is about 42,000 square miles, that of North Borneo about 31,000 square miles. The chief towns are Sandakan, the capital of North Borneo; Brunei, the capital of the state of that name; and Kuching, the capital of Sarawak.

## HONGKONG.

Hongkong is one of a number of islands situated off the south-eastern coast of China at the mouth of the Canton river, and lies about ninety-one miles south of Canton. The island is an irregular ridge, running nearly east and west, with broken and abrupt peaks rising to the height of nearly 2,000 feet above sea level. Its length is about eleven miles, and its breadth from two to five miles. Its area is a third larger than that of Guernsey. It is separated from the mainland by a narrow strait, which in parts does not exceed half-a-mile in width. The opposite peninsula of Kowloon, with an area of two and two-thirds square miles, and a few small islets form part of the colony.

An area in the province of Kuangtung, adjacent to British Kowloon and about 370 square miles in extent, has been leased from China, and is administered by the Hongkong Government. It includes the island of Lan-tao, numerous smaller islands, and all the mainland south of a line from Mirs Bay in the east to Deep Bay on the west.

The waterways of the colony form one of the most magnificent harbours in the world, having an area of ten square miles. The granite hills which surround it rise between 2,000 and 3,000 feet high, the whole offering a *coup d'œil* which blends the wild scenery of Scotland with the classic beauty of Italy. The city of Victoria extends for four miles at the base of the hills which protect the south side of the harbour, and contains, with its suburbs, nearly 300,000 inhabitants. Being built on the slope of the hills facing the sea, the general aspect of the town is perhaps more striking and picturesque from the water than that of any other city in the East, whilst many of the streets are shaded with well-grown and handsome trees.

The average rainfall is about 77 inches per annum. The temperature ranged in 1904 from 91·1° Fahr. in June, to 44·8° Fahr. in December. The rainy season extends from May to October. The climate is not, on the whole, unhealthy, but there have been frequent outbreaks of bubonic plague among the Chinese community. The population in 1904 was estimated at over 361,000, of whom over 342,000 were Chinese. The city is the depôt for an incessant flow of Chinese emigration and immigration, principally to and from the Malay Peninsula.

The port is the headquarters of the China squadron, and is fortified and garrisoned by the British Government.

*History.*—The colony, then a desolate island sparsely inhabited by fishermen, was ceded to Great Britain in January, 1841, and the cession was confirmed by the Treaty of Nankin, in August, 1842. In 1861 the peninsula of Kowloon was added, and in 1898 an agreement was entered into with the Chinese Government by which the adjacent districts were leased to Great Britain for 99 years. At first Chinese jurisdiction in the walled city of Kowloon was retained, but in 1899 the city was incorporated in the leased territory and became subject to British rule.

Hongkong did not become of much commercial importance until the discovery of gold in Australia in 1851, and the consequent Chinese emigration. Its trade has gradually increased with the opening up of China to foreign trade.

Large local banking, dock, steamboat, and insurance companies were established between 1865 and 1872, and the trade was greatly increased by the opening of the Suez Canal.



*Industry and Shipping.*—The island produces little or nothing but its position has made it a centre of trade in many kinds of goods. Amongst the principal are opium, sugar, flour, salt, earthenware, oil, amber, cotton and cotton goods, sandal-wood, ivory, betel, vegetables, live stock, granite, &c. The transactions of the tea and silk trade are largely controlled by Hongkong firms. There are a few manufactories, which are rapidly increasing in number and importance, producing rope, sugar, rum, paper, vermilion, sauce, bricks, tiles and cement, bamboo work, and stores of every description for the supply of shipping. There is a considerable boat-building industry among the Chinese.

It is a free port, and the transit trade is enormous, but no returns are kept of imports and exports. In shipping tonnage Hongkong is the second port of the Empire, being little behind London, and well in front of Liverpool. In 1904 7,435 steamers, 26 sailing vessels, 1,027 steam launches, and 18,100 junks engaged in foreign trade entered the port, and the total tonnage entering and clearing during the year amounted to 24,750,000 tons, Hongkong is well provided with dock accommodation, and there are facilities for repairing large vessels.

*Constitution.*—The colony is administered by a governor, aided by an executive council, composed of six official and two unofficial members. The legislative council is composed of seven official and six unofficial members, three of whom are nominated by the Crown on the recommendation of the governor (two being usually Chinese), one is nominated by the Justices of the Peace from their body, and one by the Chamber of Commerce.

## WEI-HAI-WEI.

The territory of Wei-hai-wei is situated in the north-east of the province of Shantung, and comprises the island of Liu Kung and a belt of land ten miles wide along the bay in which the island lies. Its area is 285 square miles. Outside this territory is a zone within which Great Britain has certain rights.

The territory is rugged in character and the rainfall and the trade are alike small. The chief town is Port Edward in the western corner of the bay. Most of the population, which is estimated at 150,000, is to be found in the native villages, which are administered, according to Chinese custom, by their headmen. The government is administered by a commissioner and a small staff.

The Island of Liu Kung was formerly one of the two chief naval stations of China. It was taken by the Japanese in the

China-Japan war, and in 1898 it was leased by China with the surrounding territory to Great Britain.

During the summer months Wei-hai-wei is used by the British China squadron as a sanatorium and exercise ground, and is frequented by visitors from further south, who are attracted by its good climate.

### MAURITIUS.

*General Description.*—Mauritius is an island in the Indian Ocean, about 500 miles east of Madagascar. It has an extreme length of 36 miles from north to south, and an extreme breadth of 28 miles; its area is about 705 square miles or nearly equal to that of Surrey. The island is of volcanic formation, and is surrounded by reefs of coral. The central districts are elevated, and the mountains which bound the central plateau are highest on the west and south-west. Three peaks reach about 2,700 feet. The island is watered by numerous streams commonly flowing in deep ravines, but none are navigable for any distance from the sea.

The hottest season is from December to April; it is comparatively cool during the remainder of the year. Malaria is prevalent, and since 1899 plague has been constantly present.

The permanent settled population of European race is larger than in most tropical colonies, and is almost entirely of French origin. The French language, or a corruption of it known as Creole, is in common use. At the census of 1901 the population of the island was 373,336. Of these 108,847 were of European, African or mixed descent; 198,958 were Indo-Mauritians—*i.e.*, persons of Indian descent born in Mauritius; there were 62,022 other Indians and 3,509 Chinese.

The total number of Indians was thus 260,980 or nearly 70 per cent. of the total population. The Indian population dates from the emancipation of the slaves in 1834-9. The freed slaves, who numbered about 66,000, were in many cases unwilling to work on their late masters' estates, and recourse was had by the estate owners to Indian immigration. This system began in 1834, and except for occasional temporary stoppages, has gone on ever since. The descendants of these immigrants—the Indo-Mauritians—now form the largest section of the population, and are steadily increasing in numbers. They are predominant in the domestic, commercial, and still more in the agricultural callings, and the amount of land held by them as small planters is rapidly growing. 11

Port Louis in the north-west of the island is the capital and port, and contains, with its suburbs, a population of 52,740. The harbour is large, and is defended by two forts. The trade

of the islands passes almost entirely through the capital. The island contains an Imperial garrison. The railways, of which there are about 131 miles open, are worked by and are the property of the Colonial Government.

*History.*—The island was discovered by the Portuguese in 1507, but the first people to occupy it in any numbers were the Dutch, in 1598. The Dutch, however, in 1712, abandoned the island. It was occupied in 1715 by a party of Frenchmen, and in 1721 was formally taken possession of by the French. At first it was administered by the French East India Company, but in 1767 the French Crown took over the government.

During the wars between England and France, Mauritius, situated as it is on the high-road to India viâ the Cape of Good Hope, was largely used by French men of-war and privateers as a base from which to prey upon British shipping. At last the British Government determined on its capture, which was effected by an expedition in 1810, and the possession of the island was confirmed to England by the Treaty of Paris in 1814. The chief features of its subsequent history have been the development of the sugar industry by Indian indentured labour, and the natural disasters which it has experienced—such as the great cyclone of 1892, which caused enormous destruction to buildings and crops, the destruction by fire in 1893 of a large part of Port Louis, and the surra epidemic of 1902–3, which swept off nearly all the horses and cattle. The chief constitutional change has been the substitution, in 1885, of a partly elective legislature for one wholly nominated.

The government is administered by a governor with an executive council of five officials and two nominated unofficials. The legislature consists of eight ex-officio members, nine nominated members, and ten elected members. The latter are elected on a restricted franchise, two for the town of Port Louis, and one each for the eight rural districts. Of the nominated members, four are officials and five unofficials.

*Industry.*—The island produces hardly anything for its own consumption except sugar and rum and exports nearly the whole of its produce. By far the most important crop is the sugar cane—the exports of sugar in 1904 amounting to about 200,000 tons with an estimated value of over Rs. 38,000,000 or about 91 per cent. of the total exports, which were valued at about Rs. 42,000,000.

Other exports are aloe fibre, molasses, cocoa-nut oil, vanilla and rum.

## DEPENDENCIES.

The dependencies of Mauritius comprise a large number of islands scattered over the Indian Ocean. The principal are :—

Rodrigues, the most important, is 344 miles to the east of Mauritius. The island is 18 miles long by 7 miles broad, and is surrounded by coral reefs, extending in some places five or six miles from the shore.

Its population is 3,162. It is a landing place of the telegraph cable which connects South Africa and Mauritius with Australia. The island is volcanic, mountainous, and in parts well wooded. The temperature differs little from that of Mauritius. The climate is healthy. The principal industries are fishing and the rearing of cattle and goats, for which latter the pasturage is excellent. The soil is good; sugar cane, cotton, coffee, rice, maize, beans and vanilla grow luxuriantly.

The trade, however, is small, owing partly to want of regular communication.

The island is administered by a magistrate under the control of the Governor of Mauritius.

Diego Garcia (population 489), the most important of the Chagos group, consists of four islands, about half-way between Mauritius and Ceylon, the chief one being about 30 miles in length, extending in an irregular horse-shoe shape, and embracing between its extremities three minor islets. It is a coral atoll, nowhere over ten feet high, but forming a spacious bay, roomy enough for large vessels to enter, being fifteen miles in length from end to end, and from two to five miles in breadth.

It is in the hands of a company, and there is no resident Government officer.

The other dependencies are mainly sandy or coral islets or groups, and for the most part are leased to or owned by firms or individuals in Mauritius who use them for growing cocoanuts. They are visited periodically by two itinerating magistrates from Mauritius.

## SEYCHELLES.

The Seychelles Islands are situated between 4° and 5° south of the equator, and about half-way between Mauritius and the entrance to the Red Sea. The estimated area of the group and of its dependencies, in all 89 in number, is only 148½ square miles. The Seychelles are mountainous, fertile,



and extremely healthy. Though so near the equator, the temperature in the shade seldom exceeds  $84^{\circ}$  F., and at night it frequently falls below  $70^{\circ}$  F., while the temperature on the hills is several degrees lower. The death-rate in 1904 was a little over 16 per 1,000; the population is about 20,000.

Mahé (area  $55\frac{1}{2}$  square miles), is the largest and most populous island. Irregular in shape, it rises abruptly from the sea, and the highest peak reaches the elevation of 2,900 feet. The capital, Victoria, is situated in a valley in the north-east, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

The other chief islands are Praslin ( $14\frac{1}{2}$  square miles) and La Digue ( $3\frac{1}{2}$  square miles) to the north-east and Silhouette ( $7\frac{1}{2}$  square miles) to the north-west of Mahé.

The dependencies include Aldabra, the only habitat of the gigantic land tortoises.

*History.*—The Seychelles are believed to have been discovered by the Portuguese in 1505, but the discovery was not apparently followed by any attempt at settlement. Previous to the French occupation they were the resort of corsairs, some of whose names are still borne by descendants in Mahé at the present time. In 1743 the French from Mauritius took possession of them, and their natural resources and freedom from hurricanes induced the French to plant them with spice trees with the idea of wresting from the Dutch the monopoly which that nation then enjoyed in Europe from its own colonies in the East. During the war of the American Revolution the plantations were destroyed by fire on the appearance of a French vessel which had hoisted English colours, fearing that the islands had been captured by the English. In 1794 the expected English man-of-war actually arrived, and Mahé and the other islands capitulated. The French governor was however left in charge as agent under the British government, and it was not till after the capture of Mauritius in 1810 that Seychelles was formally taken possession of and incorporated as a Mauritius dependency.

The islands were at first administered by a Civil Commissioner. In 1872 the finances were separated from those of Mauritius, and in 1888 an administrator with an executive and a legislative council was appointed. In 1897 the administrator was given full powers as governor, and Seychelles was practically separated from Mauritius. In 1903 the separation was completed and Seychelles was erected into a separate colony under its own governor. The executive council consists of three official members besides the governor, and the legislative council of three official and an equal number of nominated members, with the governor as president.

*Industry.*—The islands are entirely agricultural, except for a small fishing industry. The chief export is vanilla, but the production by the Germans of vanillin (the essential constituent of vanilla) by chemical means has inflicted a severe blow on the industry, and increased attention is now being given to other products, such as cocoa-nuts and rubber. Cocoa-nuts with their oil and copra (the dried kernel) are exported, as also are turtle-shell, soap, guano, and salted fish.

At Praslin and another island of the group is to be found the celebrated coco-de-mer or double cocoa-nut. The enormous fruit were first found on the shores of the Maldives and the Malabar coast to which they had been carried by ocean currents, and it was not till long after that the place where they grew, was discovered. With the leaves the natives of Praslin make hats and delicate basket work.



## 7.—MISCELLANEOUS.

## FALKLAND ISLANDS.

The Falkland Islands are situated in the South Atlantic Ocean, about 480 miles N.E. of Cape Horn, and about 1,000 miles due south of Monte Video. They consist of the East Falkland (area 3,000 square miles), the West Falkland (2,300 square miles), and about 100 small islands, with an area of nearly 1,200 square miles. The only town is Stanley, in the East Falkland, with a population of 880. The climate is cold but healthy.

*South Georgia*, a group of islands  $54\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  S., and  $36^{\circ}$  to  $38^{\circ}$  W., is a dependency of the Falkland Islands. It was taken possession of by Captain Cook in 1755. It has an area of about 1,000 square miles and is uninhabited and almost perpetually icebound. The main island is mountainous.

The total area of the colony, including South Georgia, is about equal to that of Wales. The population is about 2,000.

The entire country is wild moorland interspersed with rocks and stone runs. The soil is chiefly soft peat, and travelling is difficult. There are no roads except within the limits of Stanley, and communication is by sea or on horseback. The islands are so well adapted for sheep-farming that the entire acreage has been devoted to that industry. Trees are completely absent. The chief exports are wool, hides, and tallow. Most of the trade is in the hands of the Falklands Islands Company.

*History.*—The Falklands were discovered by Davis in 1592. In 1764 they were taken possession of by France, and Bougainville planted a small colony of Acadians on East Falkland. Bougainville was bought out by Spain. In 1820 the Republic of Buenos Ayres established a settlement in these islands, which was destroyed by the United States in 1831.

In 1832 they were taken possession of by the British Government, for the protection of the whale fishery. Until 1843 they were under the charge of the naval officers engaged in making the Admiralty surveys. In 1843 a Civil Administration was formed.

## TRISTAN DA CUNHA.

Tristan da Cunha is the principal of a group of islands lying to the south-west of Cape Colony. It was taken possession of by a military force during the residence of Napoleon at St. Helena. Upon his death the garrison was withdrawn, with the exception of three men who, with certain shipwrecked sailors, became the founders of the present settlement. Women were introduced from St. Helena as wives for the settlers. The population, when the island was visited in November, 1901, by one of H.M. ships, was found to be only 74. It remains practically stationary, as the younger and more ambitious settlers migrate in batches to the Cape. The inhabitants practically enjoy their possessions in common under the moral rule of their oldest inhabitant. They have between them about 500 cattle, 600 sheep, as well as poultry and pigs.

Besides the Tristan da Cunha group a number of islands and rocks throughout the world are British territory, or under British protection, though not included in any colony or separate protectorate. Many of these have no permanent inhabitants, but are, or have been, leased by the Treasury for guano collection, or for cocoa-nut planting. Most of them are in the Pacific Ocean, and among them may be mentioned Fanning Island, which has been utilized as a station of the Pacific cable.





This is a detailed historical map of the world, likely from the late 19th or early 20th century. It shows the continents of North America, South America, Africa, Europe, Asia, and Australia. The map is color-coded, with different colors representing different regions or countries. Major cities are marked with dots and labeled. The map includes latitude and longitude lines, with the Prime Meridian and the Equator clearly visible. The title 'THE WORLD' is at the top center. The map is oriented with North at the top.

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